

The CLEARING HOUSE

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In this issue:

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by JOSEPH E. WALKER

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The School's Role in Developing International Understanding . . . Machines
Aid Learning . . . Teacher or Machine? . . . The Psychiatric Exemption . . .
Common Diseases of Rhetoric . . . A Letter from Outer Space

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We invite readers to write articles that report good practices, interesting experiments, research findings, or new slants on persistent problems in education. We prefer articles that combine factual reporting, interesting context, and incisive style. Topics should relate to programs, services, and personnel in junior and senior high school.

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The School's Role in Developing INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

By KHALIL I. GEZI

DEVELOPING INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING through classroom teaching has become an accepted goal of education in the United States as well as in many other countries. Such an acceptance has been prompted by several significant factors. One of these factors is the increasing awareness by the peoples of the world of the dangers which threaten their human rights and, hence, of the imperative need for better understanding and co-operation among all human beings for the preservation of all human rights. A second factor is the realization by the strife-torn world of today that human survival may hinge upon the success or failure of the world's quest for peace and that peace cannot be achieved without international empathy and co-operation. A third factor is world interdependence, which brings to the foreground the need to educate young men and women for living in an emerging world community. A fourth factor is the desire of educators to develop a well-informed world citizenry whose opinions may shape the policies of the various governments. The development of such an informed citizenry will depend, among other things, on the extent to which classroom activities foster international understanding.

The words "international understanding" are used in this article to denote the process of obtaining knowledge about other nations, of developing sound attitudes toward

them, and of forming relevant patterns of action which are consistent with the knowledge and the attitudes acquired. In this definition, it is significant to note the following three elements of international understanding: (1) cognitive learning or acquiring knowledge; (2) affective learning or acquiring attitudes; and (3) a consistent pattern of action.¹ Cognitive learning is devoted to learning facts, concepts, ideas, and intellectual skills, such as critical thinking. But knowledge about other people does not seem necessarily to correlate with the type of attitudes developed toward these people.² Therefore, attitude formation and attitude change should supplement cognitive learning in the development of international understanding in the classroom. Newcomb defines an attitude as "a state of readiness for motivated behavior" and describes an individual's attitude toward an object as his "predisposition to perform, perceive, think, and feel in relation to it."³

The third phase of international understanding, which supplements cognitive and affective learning, is action. Action is the

¹ Louis P. Cajoleas, "International Understanding: a Theoretical Analysis of a Goal in Education," *Teachers College Record*, LXI (January, 1960), 188-194.

² Karl C. Garrison, "A Comparative Study of the Attitudes of College Students Toward Certain Domestic and World Problems," *Journal of Social Psychology*, XXXIV (August, 1951), 47-54.

³ Theodore M. Newcomb, *Social Psychology* (New York: Dryden Press, 1950), pp. 118-119.

EDITOR'S NOTE

There hardly has been a period in the history of mankind which parallels the situations we find ourselves in today. Added to the tremendous conflict caused by opposing ideologies of leading national powers, new nations, dormant and hidden for many years, suddenly have emerged to magnify the turbulent international scene. The schools constantly must keep a finger on the pulse beat of the world's problems and ills. It is no longer a question of whether or not the schools should concern themselves with international affairs. They must become involved, for our existence may depend upon the ability of our educational system to produce students who are critical and astute observers of international events. The author, chairman of the division of secondary education at the Immaculate Heart College in Los Angeles, offers some basic suggestions for helping our students to develop this much needed critical attitude.

behavioral enforcement of knowledge and attitudes.

In the succeeding pages, the role of the school in developing these three elements of international understanding will be discussed.

It is important to point out here that the development of international understanding hinges on the cumulative influence of many factors. Formal education programs of the school are only one of these factors. Home environment, peer-group values, mass media of communication, and individual experiences are some of the other factors. The hope, however, is that the school curriculum can implement positive attitudes toward other countries and weaken negative impressions, stereotypes, and misconceptions of their people. It is widely accepted among educators today that education is the process of guiding the student's behavior in desirable directions. According

to this concept and within the context of the high-school curriculum, teachers are afforded adequate opportunities to foster in their students a positive world-mindedness.

In the following sections, certain school activities will be suggested as possible aids to the development of international understanding.

Developing Critical Thinking. Assuming that all teachers attempt as much as possible to provide adequate and objective facts about the world to their students, the challenging question which remains in the minds of many teachers is: How can I help my students develop critical thinking in the area of international relations? The answer to this question is not an easy one. Based on the available research in this area,⁴ one is led to expect that certain activities in the school seem to contribute to the development of critical thinking. First of all, teachers can help in the development of logical reasoning in their students by emphasizing effective thinking habits. Mathematics teachers, for instance, can provide their students with adequate mathematical problems which require them to analyze the data, form tentative hypotheses, arrive at conclusions, and test these conclusions. These steps in the thinking process can be further tested in the analysis of nonmathematical problems, such as those involving stereotyped statements or misconceptions regarding foreign peoples. Science teachers can foster effective thinking habits by training their students to use the scientific method as a method of inquiry in the international field. An example of such an inquiry is the use of the scientific method in the exploration of the assumed supremacy of a nation or a racial group over others.

The second step in aiding the development of critical thinking is to involve the students in the analysis of information and ideas by providing them with challenging

⁴For a discussion of such research, see Frederick J. McDonald, *Educational Psychology* (San Francisco: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1959), pp. 165-206.

and meaningful opportunities to criticize and judge news stories, books, and television programs which are concerned with life in other countries. Social studies teachers can work out with their students a unit on propaganda analysis. A set of rules can be drafted as criteria for accepting or rejecting an idea, such as the availability or the lack of a verifiable evidence in support of the idea. Then, a rigorous analysis of the assumptions implied in each statement being studied can be undertaken, with the major ideas isolated and defined clearly. Finally, the students are helped to analyze the evidence presented and to formulate their own judgment on each statement. Teachers of foreign languages may wish to begin their instruction by a unit on understanding the people of Mexico, France, or Italy, for example. In such a unit, the students and the teacher collect as much information as they can on the nation being studied, then proceed to analyze this information and explore the implied assumptions, misconceptions and stereotypes generally held regarding the foreign nation. A more sympathetic understanding of this nation may result from such a unit.

The third step in fostering critical thinking is to acknowledge such thinking as an integral goal of instruction and to render it satisfying to those who exhibit it. This leads the teacher not only to demonstrate his own critical-thinking ability in his instruction, but also to provide satisfying opportunities for his students to question him and others intelligently. For instance, the teacher's acknowledgment of a student's analytical paper on Pasternak's *Doctor Zhivago*, his pleasure with another student's report on the plight of the refugees in Hong Kong, or his praise of students' intelligent remarks, questions, and debates are all possible incentives for the students to keep on thinking critically.

Finally, critical thinking has to be applied to situations involving international affairs and foreign people if it is to be an

effective tool in this area. Many opportunities in each subject-matter area can be exploited for such an application. English teachers, for example, can select a story or an essay depicting life in a foreign country and encourage their students to read other material about that country in order to be able to analyze the accuracy of the contents of the essay.

Guidance classes and homeroom or counseling periods can be used to help the students explore the nature of prejudice against certain minority or national groups, to motivate them to discuss intelligently some of the causes of prejudice, and to guide them in arriving at some valid principles and conclusions which can affect their thinking of other people.

Developing Positive Attitudes. Although the complex process of attitude formation and attitude change is affected by many influences in society, the school can help its students to a certain extent in forming positive attitudes or at least can assist in weakening their prejudices. The school may be able to do so by, first, providing within its milieu a democratic atmosphere which is conducive to the development of respect for the rights and privileges of each individual and to student co-operation and free self-expression. The democratic classroom affords to the students valuable living experiences in co-operation among equals regardless of their ethnic, racial, or national backgrounds. This can be implemented in every classroom. The physical education teacher can provide opportunities for the whole class to participate in games and to co-operate with each other as a team. Such a practice may foster a sense of respect and a feeling of camaraderie among the members of the class. The social studies teacher can provide a democratic atmosphere for classroom debates, where all possible sides of an issue are presented as objectively as possible and where the students are encouraged to express their relevant ideas and criticism.

Aside from providing a democratic atmosphere, the school can also provide pleasant primary and aesthetic experiences in the area of international relations. As an example of a primary experience in this area, teachers of social studies and of foreign languages can invite some international students to talk about their native lands and about their native tongues. Another example is that of a school project aimed at providing a free scholarship for a student from abroad to enable him to study at an American high school. This student's sojourn in America can give magnificent opportunities for face-to-face relationships and understanding between him and his American colleagues.

Aesthetic experiences can especially be provided by the teachers of music, foreign languages, art, drama, literature, and homemaking. For instance, the teachers of music and foreign languages can use records of foreign songs to help their students appreciate the music and the language of other countries. Art teachers may be able to exhibit a selection of international paintings to their students in order to familiarize them with artistic expressions of other people.

Teachers of drama and literature can select appealing foreign plays, stories, essays, and poems to be read or to be acted out by the students. Homemaking teachers can help their students explore the fascinating world of fashions and cooking in a variety of countries. Learning to appreciate the aesthetic products of a foreign culture may lead to a more sympathetic understanding of its people.

Stressing Consistent Patterns of Action. Critical thinking and positive attitudes in the area of international relations must culminate in action. The students can be encouraged to act in the light of their convictions in this area by first providing them with channels for action, such as participation in the establishment of an international club, in the model United Nations, and in similar other activities. Secondly, the school can supervise and guide the behavior of its students in its activities through its guidance program and its faculty advisers so that the students can learn to act with due respect in their interaction with each other in the school and in their contacts with the people of their communities.



A Short Lesson

By ROBERT G. AMES
Madison, Wisconsin

Pupils talking,
Purpose lost.
Teacher walking,
Looking cross.

On preplanning
He relied;
Put in use and
"Modified!"

Some Uses and Abuses of FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION

By
JOSEPH E. WALKER

A SENIOR IN A TEACHERS COLLEGE returned from an interview with a school superintendent and reported to a friend that he could have the job if he were willing to teach a class on family life. Without an instant of hesitation his friend offered this advice: "Turn it down. You can't teach that course without mentioning sex; and the minute you use that word, you are on your way out the door."

EDITOR'S NOTE

Certain statistical aspects of modern-day marriages are most alarming. We are told that almost 40 per cent of the brides and 20 per cent of the grooms are of high-school age. This current trend is of enormous interest to educators. What can the schools do to stem this tide? What position should the schools take with respect to those students who marry before graduation? What can the schools do to instruct their students in the various phases of family life? It is to this last question that we turn our attention.

In light of what is happening, it seems to us that the high schools are obligated to offer a sensible program in family life education. The contents of such a course must be concerned with the psychological, financial, and biological aspects of family living. The teacher of such a course should be a well-adjusted individual who is carefully selected for this important assignment. However, the author contends that such a teacher is not always available. In fact, talking about family life education is a great deal easier than putting it into effect. He is an associate professor at Millersville (Pennsylvania) State College.

This adviser was correct on his first point. Sex education is an integral and inseparable part of a course which deserves the name "family life education." His conclusion is an opinion widely held among school personnel. But perhaps the prospective teacher would like to know that the situation is not so bad as his friend has made it appear. Assuredly there have been occasional highly publicized incidents involving teachers of sex education. But the background of such cases will often reveal special circumstances which led to the difficulty.

A review of cases from my files and those of several colleagues lead to these tentative conclusions about the causes of trouble:

(1) *There are teachers who are inadequately prepared to teach in this field.* Judson Landis discovered that few of the people teaching sex education in California high schools had even taken a course on the family.¹ Glatthorn found a similar situation in Pennsylvania.² And there is no reason to suspect that these two states differ from the other forty-eight.

This lack of teacher preparation may account for the family classes which devote a large block of time to staging a mock wedding or others which blandly skip the chapters on reproduction. These teachers are trying to avoid difficulty by staying out of dangerous areas.

(2) *There are teachers who should not be assigned to sex education duties because*

¹ Judson T. Landis, "Attitudes and Policies Concerning Marriage Among High School Students," *Marriage and Family Living*, XVIII (May, 1956), 128-136.

² Allan Dale Glatthorn, "Family Life Education in the Public High Schools of Pennsylvania," a doctoral dissertation at Temple University, 1960.

of emotional problems of their own. The male instructor who cannot avoid an erotic reaction to discussions in the area of sex or the female instructor who enjoys a vicarious sexual experience by pumping the girls for full details of their relations with boys is obviously out of place.

A guidance counselor who had had no specific preparation in family life education was assigned to teach this course to a group of senior-high boys. He decided that he could not deal with sex education because of his own lack of knowledge and a feeling of embarrassment. So he outlined a "safe" course limited to the etiquette of courtship and the "nonsexual" problems of marriage. Many of the boys were acquainted with the superficial facts and common language of reproduction. It became a game with them to make life miserable for the teacher by raising questions which would require him to refuse to answer.

The teacher recognized that he could not continue in this way and decided to discuss the situation, as frankly as he could, with his principal. Probably the principal should have recognized the need to assign someone else to this class. But having his own problems of staff, he suggested that the policy be changed and the class be permitted to discuss matters of sex. The teacher did some reading to increase his own information, but he still had had no experience in a class where there was a matter-of-fact approach to sex instruction.

He told his class that they could ask questions which had previously been barred. He could not overcome his embarrassment, and the boys were amused at their ability to disconcert him.

The parents of several of the boys got word of what was happening. They went to the principal and voiced their objections. He placed all of the blame on the teacher and criticized him in front of the parents.

The teacher considered his position so untenable that he resigned.

(3) *Many school administrators are extremely sensitive to criticism of sex instruction by newspapers or by a tiny minority—sometimes only one—of parents or community leaders.*

A school nurse was giving some instruction on menstruation in her guidance group of junior-high girls. Many parents reacted favorably and said so to both the principal and the teacher. One mother objected. The instruction was stopped immediately by order of the principal.

(4) *Some teachers proceed on their own without informing the principal of their plans.* An administrator is understandably annoyed when he is informed first by an outsider about what is being done in his school.

A new teacher in a senior high school was enthusiastic about offering some sex instruction. It was not a part of any class he was teaching, and he did not discuss his plan with his principal. Early in the year he announced that the time in homeroom would be used, in part, for counseling and discussion of topics on sex education. The next morning the principal was under fire from a parent who objected to such instruction for her child. The principal was angry because he had not known of the plans until informed by a parent. He ordered a change of discussion topics and gave the teacher a poor rating for subjecting the school (and the principal) to parental criticism.

(5) *Perhaps this new teacher was vulnerable to an even more serious charge: He was proposing to teach material out of its proper context. Sex is not a thing apart but a factor of family living. Sex education, therefore, is not a subject for isolated study. Its proper place is within the general study of the family.*

A wiser or more experienced teacher handled both of these problems in a different way. Her principal had refused her request to use the film, *Human Growth*, in her family life class, on the grounds that there would be objection from the conserva-

tive religious people of the community. The teacher said nothing more but scheduled a showing of the film to the next meeting of the P.T.A. Many members said in effect, "Why can't our children have this kind of instruction?" Now the principal suggested use of it in the class.

(6) *Objection to sex instruction is sometimes used as an excuse for removing a teacher when the real reason is something quite different.*

Several years ago, when jobs were not so easy to get in the teaching profession, a science teacher was fired because he was "endangering the school through teaching about sex." One parent, a close friend of the superintendent, had made a strong protest. The daughter of the objecting parent was the teacher hired to fill the vacancy. There is at least fair grounds for a mild suspicion that sex education was being used as a convenient means to a desired end.

Consideration of the foregoing six generalizations and the illustrations cited would probably lead our prospective teacher to several conclusions: (a) It is as important to have adequate training for teaching about sex as for teaching in any other area. (b) Sex instruction should be integrated with the related material of a class in family life education. (c) Good liaison between the teacher and his administrators is essential.

It is also apparent from the cases cited that there was strong objection from some parents to sex instruction—or at least to the kind of sex instruction being given. Is this parental reaction general enough to cause a new teacher to try to avoid an assignment to teach family life education? Moreover, several research studies found that school administrators³ most frequently gave community or parental opposition as a reason

for not including any planned sex education in the curriculum.

Kenkel reported from a study of 280 high schools in Iowa that 35 per cent offered no sex instruction. Of these almost half (43 per cent) gave as their reason a fear of adverse community reaction.⁴ Elizabeth Force, from her survey of opinion among the chief school officers of forty-eight states, found a fear of public criticism creating confusion and doubt about the wisdom of teaching this kind of material.⁵ Southworth, from his study of 390 Wisconsin schools, reported objection of parents as the second most frequently given reason for not offering sex instruction. (Lack of qualified teachers was listed first.)⁶

From the research projects we can conclude that some administrators are fearful of possible parental objections. Are these fears real or imagined? A number of studies are available which were concerned with parental and community reaction to the teaching of sex education in public schools. Southworth, in his study, concluded that parental objection was a minor factor in hindering the introduction of sex instruction in Wisconsin schools. He also found on the positive side that in 8 per cent to 10 per cent of the schools which offered such education, the initial impulse had come from parents or the community. About the same number had had parents participate in planning the courses to be offered.⁶

The Connecticut Fact Finding Commission on Education talked with 38,000 people in public meetings in 1955 in an effort to find what the state needed educationally.⁷ The parents put sex education at the top

³William F. Kenkel, "A Survey of Family Life Education in Iowa High Schools," *Marriage and Family Living*, XIX (November, 1957), 379-381.

⁴Elizabeth S. Force, "High School Education for Family Living," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCLXXII (November, 1950), 156-162.

⁵Warren H. Southworth, "The Nature of Sex Education Programs in Wisconsin High Schools," *High School Journal*, XXXVIII (December, 1954), 77-104.

⁶Fred M. Hechinger, *An Adventure in Education* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1956), p. 173.

⁷In case the impression may be created that public school administrators are generally opposed to sex education, it should be pointed out that the American Association of School Administrators has recognized the responsibility of the schools in this area. See *Education for Family Life*, 19th Yearbook, A.A.S.A. (Washington, D.C., 1941), p. 96.

of the list of needs. As these were public meetings, statistics are lacking to show the extent of this demand. But is it not notable that this expression came from one of the two states which prohibit dissemination of birth control information?

The E. C. Brown research studies in Oregon discovered that of almost 8,000 parents, teachers, and college students queried about the use of the film, *Human Growth*, in high schools, almost all gave approval. A total of 97 per cent of the parents wanted their children to see the film.⁸

In California letters were sent to 3,759 parents requesting them to state their views on the teaching of sex information in the schools. Of the replies, 99 per cent were favorable.⁹ In Los Angeles a poll of parents brought replies of which 97 per cent were favorable to sex instruction for senior high schools, 95 per cent for junior high schools, and 75 per cent for elementary schools.¹⁰

In 1956 the governor of California called a conference, the Big Town Meeting on Children and Youth. About 4,000 community leaders participated in the two-day meeting and prepared recommendations for

action. Specific recommendation No. 7 reads, "Premarital education should be made mandatory" in the high schools.¹¹

Kirkendall reported on interviews with 150 men. Of these, only ten considered themselves capable of giving a comprehensive sex education to their own children. In another group of interviews with 180 men, he found 146 who said that any ideal program of sex education should include the schools. This was more than twice as many as listed the home as a necessary part of the program.¹²

The surveys consulted would appear to show that parents will give more support than criticism to sex instruction in the curriculum. Of course, in some conservative communities or those containing large percentages of certain religious groups a considerable number of parents may possibly object. But I have been unable to find a study indicating such a result.

A new teacher of a course in family life education should be sure to find out the attitude of his own principal and superintendent. If they are concerned about a possible unfavorable reaction from the community, a survey of public opinion toward sex education is in order. It will probably show strong support for a well-planned unit.

⁸ Margie R. Lee, "Sex in Context: the Psycho-Social Focus of E. C. Brown Trust Research, 1949-1959," *Family Life Coordinator*, VIII (December, 1959), 19-33.

⁹ Lester A. Kirkendall and Archie Hamilton, "Current Thinking and Practices in Sex Education," *High School Journal*, XXXVII (February, 1954), 143-148.

¹⁰ Lester A. Kirkendall, *Sex Education as Human Relations* (Sweet Springs, Mo.: Inor Publishing Co., 1950), p. 46.

¹¹ Larry M. Stump, ed., *Big Town Meeting on Children and Youth* (Sacramento: Governor's Conference, 1956), p. 55.

¹² Kirkendall, *op. cit.*, p. 165.

There is value in adolescence as well as in adulthood. For many young people a long, slow adolescence is a period of great happiness. In an economy of abundance there is no great social need for young people to cut short their adolescence in order to contribute to the economy.—ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST in the *School Review*.

MACHINES AID LEARNING

By MARTIN and ELEANOR ASTOR

HELP WANTED:

TEACHERS AND PSYCHOLOGISTS TO HELP
DEVELOP INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS AND
QUESTIONS FOR TEACHING MACHINES.

An ad such as this can now be found in the daily papers. It is a new occurrence on the American scene and it presages what may be a revolutionary event in the field of education—auto-instructional devices (AIDs)—sometimes called “teaching machines.” The AID idea is exciting; it is claimed by some that it will do more for the transmission of learning than the invention of movable type and the power press combined. While this may be a dramatic overstatement of the facts, there is

no longer any doubt that these devices are effective. AIDs are being used today in dozens of schools and industries.

What are they? How do they work? How will they change American education as we know it today? These are the questions parents and students are asking while educators and psychologists are wrestling with the challenge of how to make the best of these new learning devices. Not all the answers to these questions are known, but here is a review of what is happening in this field to date.

Basically, there is nothing magical about the AID. It is simply information organized according to learning principles, put on a conveyer belt, and housed in a box. But there is more to it than meets the eye when it appears that the student is effortlessly cranking knowledge from a machine. Months of research and study go into the development of the vital organs of the AID. Experts organize all the facts on a particular subject in such a way that learning is made easy and the student wants to learn. Technically, this is called “programed instruction.”

All the knowledge in the instructional program must be integrated with the best of what psychologists know about how we learn. The subject must generate student interest and get the student actively involved. The information must be presented logically, step by step, not too thick or thin a dose at any one time. Each point must be frequently repeated so as to reinforce the knowledge in the student's mind. The student's work is immediately appraised after he completes his assignment.

Unlike quiz shows and true-and-false tests which encourage students to memorize, the AID does not attempt to trick the student into giving the wrong answer but

EDITOR'S NOTE

This article and the two which follow form a trilogy concerned with the broad area of teaching machines. As we will note, each one takes on a different aspect. The historical, practical, and psychological trends are explored. It is common knowledge that the use of mechanical devices for instructional purposes has met with mixed reactions from all quarters of the educational circle. There are those who view these machines with considerable foreboding, while others proclaim their usefulness with unabated enthusiasm. A sense of reason must prevail. A teaching machine is designed to be used as a mechanical assistant to the classroom teacher. It cannot pre-empt his position. Instead, used within properly designed limitations, it can become a boon to learning. At least, this is one opinion.

Dr. Martin Astor is a counseling psychologist at Queens College, New York, and his wife is a former newspaper editor and journalist and now engages in free-lance writing.

stimulates him to think. By planned and skillful release of information, the AID always assists the student to reason logically in order to come up with the right answer. In this way the student is always rewarded for learning. Because reward is built into the learning process with AIDs, it promotes the continuation of further learning.

AIDs have been given many names: automated teachers, self-tutors, self-instructors, learning cyclers, and teaching machines. The actual mechanical devices themselves are very simply built. They resemble the old-fashioned paper-rolled movie boxes used by children, about the size of a portable typewriter, containing several windows and crank handles. There are many such gadgets already on the market, but it is the program that counts.

Instead of reading a text or listening to a lecture, the student works with an ordered series of index cards or with a roll of paper set up in the AID. The student looks to the first window in the AID for his information and question. In the second window space he responds by writing his answer. To check his answer he turns a crank. If correct, he advances to the next program frame. If incorrect, depending on the type of machine in use, he may either be shunted into remedial work or moved back on the program to review the instructional material. Most AIDs keep a tally of right and wrong answers for the student.

Thus each student proceeds to learn at his own best rate—the slow and the bright student, each at his own pace. The student is able to evaluate his own work while he learns. The student's work no longer needs to be graded by the teacher. While the student is motivated to teach himself, the teacher is freed to give more individual attention to all class members as this is needed.

By study of the student's answer sheet, the teacher is in a position to diagnose the student's learning problems. He can then plan remedial work for the student.

The principles of the auto-instructional device go back to the seventeenth century precepts of Comenius, in his writings in the *Didactica Magna*. The idea of the use of an automatic machine for testing was conceived by S. L. Pressey in 1924. It was not until 1954, however, when Harvard's experimental psychologist, B. F. Skinner, published his paper, "The Science of Learning and the Art of Teaching," in the *Harvard Educational Review* that the AID movement began to be taken seriously by present-day educators and psychologists.

Skinner's article sparked off great activity in the use of programmed instructional learning. Ford and Carnegie foundations and the United States Office of Education are sponsoring research for work being done on AID at Harvard, Hamilton, and Earlham colleges. Private industry has jumped into the field in order to develop training programs for its own use. Numerous private companies, including Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, are developing programs on such subjects as music, statistics, and Hebrew.

According to Dr. Ernst Rothkopf, research psychologist with the Bell Telephone Laboratories, the key to the success or failure of the AID is in the intelligent programming of the instructional materials. Just how to motivate the student, how much material to present at one time, and the sequence and form of presentation are problems which still need to be worked out by professional programmers.

Rothkopf contends that schoolteachers should be actively involved in program development because they are familiar with the subject material. Teachers can explain things to students in simple terms and they are aware of the traditional difficulties that bother them. Furthermore, several teachers dealing with the same subject should get together, and groups of schools should also collaborate in AID program development. Eventually, Rothkopf believes, "the entire production process for programs, in-

cluding writing, will probably be handled by commercial organizations. . . ." It is quite possible that "commercial producers of programs may some day require good programers in fairly large numbers and may have to pay them handsomely. The teacher who finds that he is good at programming may want to consider the possibilities of professional programming as an interesting and profitable career."

The program is the heart of the automated learning idea. Dr. Donald A. Cook, research psychologist at the National Institute of Mental Health, points out that "programming entails not only 'breaking material into small steps,' but also applying principles of behavior to the design of the sequence of steps. We want to make sure that the student eventually makes the right response for the right reasons—has not learned by rote, will not misapply general rules, and so on—but the process of building this effective repertoire represents an untouched frontier."

It is still too early to assess the full value of the use of AIDs, although most of the people who have tried them out seem to be favorably impressed. Potentially, they can provide an answer to the teacher shortage and help to cut down the student-teacher ratio. Critics have charged that AIDs won't work, for they cannot replace the human element of the teacher. Others say that AIDs cannot teach the child to be creative and, in fact may even have the effect of stultifying creativity.

Answers to these charges come from Dr. Eugene Galanter, professor of psychology at the University of Pennsylvania and author of the first book on the subject of

AIDs, *Automatic Teaching*: "You can always make a machine act like a person if you put a person inside the machine." He suggests by this that while the role of the teacher in the classroom will be altered, the machine can never fully replace the teacher.

AIDs are no different from any other mechanical devices. They are created, operated, and controlled by man in order that we may benefit from their use. Certainly with the inclusion of AIDs the teaching process will be different from what it is today. But AIDs will probably improve the learning atmosphere in the classroom. Old-fashioned methods of teaching by exposition and the use of the textbook do not necessarily apply the best principles of good learning theory—while AIDs do.

Dr. Galanter also notes that AIDs not only teach associations, or the ability to memorize facts, but in his opinion "they can teach people to be creative" and "they can teach principles" so that students can act on their own knowledge and organize information for themselves. He argues that students can be taught information by AIDs as well as knowledge of how to use and apply information in real life situations. "The question is no longer whether students can be taught to be creative, but rather how a student can best be taught to be creative," he says.

There is still much we do not know about learning theory and human motivation—and how we can use AIDs to improve present and future methods of education. More research has yet to be done in these areas. We are beginning to break new ground and AID is the tool by which we may fashion a new future in education and learning.



The principal point is that the teacher largely governs the moral and spiritual atmosphere of the classroom. After all, the self of the teacher is taught along with the regular materials of study. The right kind of person teaching history, literature, or chemistry will do far more good than will the wrong kind of person trying to teach a course in Bible!—RODNEY CLINE in *Peabody Journal of Education*.

An Approach to Programing

By DANIEL ALBRIGHT

EITHER THERE WILL BE A *rapprochement* between teachers now in the classroom and the general problem of programing English instruction, or programs will in time be foisted on us which will be as bad as the present crop of textbooks and anthologies. Being able to conceive no more horrifying eventuality, I last year undertook some experimentation with a device described in Lumsdaine and Glaser's *Teaching Machines and Programmed Learning*, pp. 66 ff. The device consists of a sort of punchboard with thirty rows of four holes, constituting the "answer sheet" for a multiple-choice test or exercise which is provided separately in conventional form. Into the punchboard are inserted a plain piece of paper (projecting sufficiently to afford space for the student's name, the date, the elapsed time, and the number of the exercise), and a "key" board, punched with holes for the right answers. These may be secured with a piece of tape. In operation, the student selects his answer to each question on the exercise, and inserts a pencil point in the hole corresponding to that answer. If his answer is right, his pencil completely penetrates the paper, thus providing immediate

reinforcement—the essential principle of the teaching machine—but if it is wrong, the pencil is stopped by the "key" after making a small hole in the paper. The exercise, when completed, may be scored by the mere counting of all the holes in the paper. This raw score may be converted to a percentage, if desired, by being divided into thirty.

There are drawbacks to the device as a "teaching machine," which I will consider later. Its prime advantage, I believe, is that it facilitates virtually universal experimentation. Thirty boards, with five keyboards (twenty possible key arrangements) for each, were constructed for me by our custodians from perhaps ten dollars' worth of salvaged materials. Thirty Skinner machines of the current model would cost \$4,725. More important, to do an adequate job of programing a semester of English locally would cost several thousand dollars. The Center for Programed Instruction has in one case used the time of three teachers and a psychologist for a year to produce one four-thousand-frame program in English, for example. The punchboards permit the use of any kind of material which already exists in multiple-choice form, merely by rearranging the choices to fit one of the available key-combinations. Such material of course does not constitute a program, but it provides the data on which respectable research techniques can be employed—with remarkable ease—in developing a program. The trouble with English is that there is virtually nothing to go on, as compared with bridge, electronics, or algebra. The prevailing practice, unfortunately supported by textbooks in general, and even by the curriculum series of the National Council of Teachers of English, is to teach everything every semester. On the other hand, those sequences which are proposed, e.g.,

EDITOR'S NOTE

A point of clarification is necessary. When the words "teaching machines" are mentioned, most of us conjure up an image of an elaborate and expensive device. However, this is not necessarily true. It can be an item simple in design and inexpensive to construct. As a case in point, we refer you to this article, in which the author relates a most interesting experience with such a teaching aid. He is chairman of the English department at Niles Township High School, Skokie, Illinois.

by Pooley, Sauer, Hach, and others, are essentially intuitive and *a priori*.

Exercises for the punchboards should be constructed so that one leads to and reinforces another. This can be made almost automatic by designing exercises so that the density of holes in the student's answer sheet indicates by inspection the exercise which the student should take next for his particular area of difficulty.

I am afraid the material I have thus far adapted and constructed is far from this level of sophistication. I have only about forty exercises so far, in such areas as the explication of poetry, the discernment of stylistic excellence, grammar and usage drills, and a few diverse attempts to present new material. One of my major objectives in the experiment was to learn what I could about programing, and I think I have learned almost forty things *not* to do!

As a teaching device, the punchboards have another advantage which I regarded, at the beginning, as being of very great importance. I had previously experimented with some homemade self-correcting exercises, as proposed by Dr. Paul Diederich and others. In using a series of such exercises with students, I found that I was not getting the anticipated results, as indicated by conventional tests given at intervals. I attributed this failure to the observed fact that the exercises were not taken completely seriously by the students, and concluded that this was due to the fact that, unlike any other schoolwork, they did not receive grades on the exercises themselves but only on the conventional tests. That this effect does not show up in the laboratory is interesting, but unconvincing. Students in the classroom will always tend to be casual in their approach to practice materials until experience has shown as clear and positive a relationship between these and grades as there is between practice on the basketball court and success in Friday's game. (Similarly, I find that very few teachers can manage the frequently advised tech-

nique of *not* grading most student themes.)

The grades achieved on the exercises have, however, been very confusing. The scores have exhibited almost no relation to the known standing of the students involved. In a few cases, I have attempted to "calibrate" a test, by giving it in conventional form to one class and in machine form to another. Inspection indicates that the correlations would be close to zero, in most cases. Most of my difficulty in this area is undoubtedly due to the badness of my materials, but part of it undoubtedly reflects the students' reaction to the device. Much light is thrown on this by some of their written comments on the experiment as a whole: "For some reason unknown to me, I sometimes, after having made an incorrect attempt, punch at random without actual consideration, again, of the answer." Another: "I'm so angry and mystified when I choose a wrong answer I could cry. What can I do? I've already expressed my opinion. All I can do now is to stab angrily at that row of holes and either hit the right answer or break my pencil." An unexpected reaction: "If you're wrong the next thought is to poke the answer *closest* to your first answer." Among honors students taking part, this reaction was general; and they shared my confusion at the results, being unable to understand the wide variations in their own scores.

The logistics of the operation were not thoroughly foreseen. Students complete the exercises somewhat more quickly than I had anticipated, but the labor of setting up machines, etc., for which I train students, still makes it impossible to get through more than one exercise in a 55-minute period, as a rule. There is no such thing as an average time, but the range of the averages on various kinds of exercises would be from ten to twenty minutes—rather faster than the same exercises taken with pencil and paper. As with conventional tests, there is a potent sheep-effect that moves students to hurry through their

own exercise when they see others finishing theirs. This results in tremendous bottlenecks at the recording and resetting stations, which are located in a corner; a centrally located desk with a copy editor's "slot" would be a better setup.

Perhaps the most important objection of students has been their inability to ask enough questions clarifying wrong answers. One remedy would be for the teacher to work with perhaps five or six students, instead of the twenty or so I had in each class. Another way, if the twenty must be there, would be to establish for each exercise a card file containing a brief explanation of each distractor on the exercise. This was a part of my original plan, but one which I did not have time to execute. Another type of exercise, which would overcome this objection, is that sometimes used on the College Board examinations: an incomplete stanza of a poem is given, and the student is asked to identify various completions offered as being (a) wrong because of meter, (b) wrong because of rhyme, (c)

wrong because of meaning, or (d) correct.

The machines were used on two groups: one, a rather large honors group; the other, ostensibly a regular group, but actually a small and remarkably heterogeneous one. The latter group endorsed the machines almost unanimously; but the honors group, although conceding some advantages, were by a slight majority opposed to them, even though they were reluctant to dampen my apparent ardor for the experiment.

The principal gains have been to me. I learned more about the individual students than would have been possible by any means short of long and deep interviews; and I learned more about the exercises than I have ever had the patience or opportunity to do with conventional materials and ordinary statistical procedures. While I do not have a program to offer, I believe that the method is by far a more promising means of ultimately achieving a valid and reliable program than any that is presently proposed.



Misdirected Aims

Our citizenry seems to have little prime concern for an educational program centered around the purpose of leading youth to a functional understanding of living democratically in a populous world society. It appears much more preoccupied with strivings for material gains and creature pleasures. Roads and automobiles, cigarettes, liquor, entertainments, violence, and sex seem of first importance in endeavors to find joy and delight day by day or night after night, with lame hopes that missiles and space control will take care of threats to security. A half-aware guilt about what is

happening to children in mid-century America is placated, one is inclined to deduce, by providing palatial type buildings—then encouraging teachers to police children therein and teach them disagreeable lessons about matters vaguely related to their good, or in a few extreme instances, letting pupils respond to whims and idle fancies much of their time. But even such building pride seems lately to be giving way in many communities which are repeatedly voting down bond issues for needed new construction.—FRANK T. WILSON in the *Educational Forum*.

TEACHER OR MACHINE?

By DEAN LOBAUGH and DONALD R. MCKINLEY

AM I A TEACHER OR AM I A MACHINE? Perhaps I will become only a machine operator; after all, machines are efficient and can transmit subject matter quickly and without emotion. Does this concern me? It should.

Teaching machines of many types are becoming more common and more are being designed and put into operation each year. In our professional literature we read of instances of reported successes and we read here of the reluctance of teachers to accept these machines as possible aids to learning. Why do we become insecure and why do we frequently shun the examination and investigation of these technological discoveries?

We must reflect for a few minutes on the job of the teacher and the responsibility which is his in the education of boys and girls. The teaching machine can replace the teacher if the teacher is attempting to operate like a machine. Machines can be manufactured which can transmit subject matter most effectively if we define the teaching process as the mere transmission of specific information or knowledge in the

various disciplines. If, on the other hand, teaching involves not only a transmission of specific facts and information but a personal relationship which in turn provides meaning for subject matter in the context of society, then the teacher's position is secure and need not be threatened.

In evaluating our education program in terms of the race for space, we sometimes lose sight of an education equated with character and personality, and we find ourselves measuring our successes in terms of test results and the ability of students to regurgitate factual information. Those of us who believe in a discipline of education, in the laws of learning, and in the human processes involved, believe in the teacher and his important role. No machine can replace him. We realize that a superior teacher has a number of attributes which produce not only a transmission of facts but also a realization as to their place in the context of our society. The superior teacher is cognizant of the following points:

(1) There are a variety of approaches to the learning task on the part of both teacher and pupils. The teacher must do some original, creative planning for the work to be presented.

(2) The organization of the classroom should provide a laboratory of learning experiences, and materials should be available for pupils to do varied and independent work.

(3) The teacher must realize that the job to be done determines the tools to be used; objectives are set up and then resources sought to carry out the objectives. The textbook does not determine the course.

(4) The careful planning of time, with the allocation of time made in relation to the significance of the task to be done, is of prime importance.

EDITOR'S NOTE

We feel that this is an article to end all articles concerned with whether teaching machines subjugate the role of the teacher. The authors offer assurances to those teachers who are creative beings, veritable towers of strength in their classrooms. At the same time, they issue a warning to those who merely ply a trade at education instead of following the precepts of accomplished teaching. Dr. Lobaugh is superintendent of schools and Mr. McKinley is principal of the senior high school at Davis, California.

(5) There must be a respect for accuracy, whatever the source of information; each student within the limits of his ability is expected to do thorough and complete work.

(6) Pupil purposes, not teacher purposes alone, are to be served. The work of the class is done, in some measure at least, because pupils see need for it and the significance in it.

(7) The development of meanings and concepts from facts which are learned is important.

(8) High morale based on the respect of the pupils for the teacher as a teacher and as a person and respect by the teacher for the pupils as individuals and learners must be developed.

(9) Critical thinking should be developed. Statements should be challenged and sources of information questioned.

(10) An understanding of the relationship of all knowledge, of various aspects of the school program to each other and to life outside the classroom, is of vital importance.

Certainly a teacher who displays the foregoing characteristics is not in danger of being replaced by a teaching machine. Teaching machines with these attributes have not yet been developed and in all probability will not be developed. It would seem reasonable, however, that effective and secure teachers would welcome mechanical devices which would assist them in their duties.

The language laboratory is an illustration of a rather elaborate teaching machine. We believe this to be an excellent teaching aid, yet we certainly would not advocate the teaching of foreign language

solely by tapes and recordings. Skillful and creative teachers are finding that the language laboratory challenges them to develop and secure materials which can be presented to an entire class, with all participating at one time. They are also finding that they can group the class and present material at the level of understanding of the pupils. The language laboratory is also proving to be an aid in the individual study of language. It is freeing the teacher from routine, machinelike tasks, and it is giving the teacher the opportunity to do new things and more things which were not possible before the development of the laboratory. Certainly, it has not replaced the personality or the meaning of the subject which only the teacher can provide.

To those of you who are serving as human machines, we would say you can be replaced. In our world of rapid technological advancement, teaching machines can be manufactured which do not exhibit negative personalities or prejudiced viewpoints or emotional opinions. By the use of these machines, students could very well pass with a degree of success the many objective achievement tests which are commercially supplied throughout the United States.

If, on the other hand, we believe that subject matter per se is not sacred, that it has meaning only in relation to people, and that only through its interaction in society will it bear fruit, then we must encourage and develop the creative teacher who is aware of the laws of learning and who accepts the field of education as a discipline. To be a teacher is a way of life with many rewards, but to be a human teaching machine is to be only a laborer lost in a sea of facts.



In general praise or encouragement is more effective than blame or discouragement in stimulating individuals to learn and achieve. Moreover, students who are completely ignored generally do poorer than students receiving either reward or punishment.—NICHOLAS M. P. VINCENT and HELEN L. MERRILL in the *Peabody Journal of Education*.

The Psychiatric Exemption

Results of an Important Follow-up Story

By KENNETH G. RANDALL and EARL F. TELSCHOW

EVERY SCHOOL SYSTEM is faced with the fact that a small percentage of its children are so disturbed and/or disturbing that they cannot profit from instruction or allow others to do so. Such children may be legally exempt from school attendance after an evaluation which always involves a psychiatrist and may or may not involve a school psychologist and a school social worker. The issuance of a psychiatric exemption is mandated by New York State education law. These cases must be reviewed every six months to consider renewal of the exemption, possible school placement, or some other plan.

The psychiatric exemption is looked upon as a last resort measure—an indication that everything else has been tried in vain. Those responsible for the decision assess

as many factors as possible that might have an influence on the child who can no longer be held in the classroom: the child himself, his parents, the community in which he lives, and the agencies which have tried to help. Yet signing such a document almost always is a disquieting experience. The signer wonders: Was there any other possible solution? Will this help or hurt this child? Would one more school placement have succeeded? Where did we fail in this situation?

Few attempts have been made to review systematically the characteristics of this group of children or to follow them over a period to discover their fate. The authors saw this as a real need in their own city of Rochester, New York, and chose to examine all the children out of school on psychiatric exemption during the school year 1957-1958. The available data included cumulative records, reports of school psychologists and social workers, the evaluation of the consulting psychiatrist, and communications from other agencies in the area. Attendance teachers made home visits to discover the fate of these children some three years after their exemption from school.

During the 1957-1958 school year, 140 children were exempt from school on psychiatric grounds. This figure sounds excessive until one realizes that there were about 65,000 children of school age in the public, private, and parochial schools of Rochester at that time. Those on psychiatric exemption, then, amounted to but a very small fraction of 1 per cent of the total. (Children exempt because of physical problems or because of mental retarda-

EDITOR'S NOTE

The American schools offer something for everyone. Notwithstanding the concomitant difficulties, this broad coverage has been the strength and vitality of our educational system. However, a point is reached where the schools must exclude certain children for their own good as well as that of the other pupils in attendance. Unfortunately, they often become a forgotten segment of our educational and social orders. Therefore, we are pleased to publish the results of a follow-up study of children who have been placed on psychiatric exemption in the schools of Rochester, New York, where Mr. Randall is director of attendance for the city school district and Dr. Telschow is director of the district's mental health clinical services.

tion are not included in the figure of 140.)

While the age range of these children was from 6 years 8 months to 16 years 10 months, the average child was 14 years 6 months. It is not mere coincidence that the highest incidence of exemptions occurs during the adolescent years. This period is a stormy one in our complex society and the sheer strength of the adolescent is an added factor accounting for the fact that he could not be held in the regular classroom. Adolescence is also the time when children must adjust to a departmental secondary program which is less protected than the elementary school, demands adjustment to many more personalities, and requires moving from class to class in a larger physical setting.

Sixty-six per cent of the exempts were male. This ratio of 2:1 was entirely expected and squares with other studies of disturbed children whose primary symptom is acting out. The female of the species in our society is not expected to be so aggressive as the male. She seems to accept the role that society assigns and, when disturbed, her symptoms usually take other forms.

Insofar as could be determined, about 18 per cent of the group were nonwhite children. While this figure is above the actual proportion found in the city, it must be remembered that most of the disturbed children tend to come from those parts of the city where mobility of population and social disorganization are more prevalent. The nonwhite population is also apt to be heavier in those areas of the city. The authors do not feel, therefore, that white children are any less prone to become disturbed or disturbing.

The 140 children in this study were known to a total of 908 social agencies in the area. According to data from the area clearinghouse, the Central Index, the families were registered on the average with 6.5 agencies. The range was from 0 to 19! At least half of the children had been known

to the school mental health workers for more than three years prior to the first exemption. These figures strongly support the statement at the outset of this article that considerable effort had been made to help each of these children and the families before the child was placed on exemption. Despite the number of agencies involved, the child could not be contained in school, suggesting that motivation for help and the ability to follow through on suggestions are low among such families. Had it not been for the efforts of the school

TABLE 1
SCHOOLS FROM WHICH 140 CHILDREN CAME JUST
BEFORE PLACEMENT ON EXEMPTION

	Frequency	% of total
Public elementary	21	15
Parochial elementary	1	1
Public secondary	104	74
Parochial secondary	1	1
Unknown or not registered	13	9
Totals	140	100

mental health team, it seems likely that these children would have been exempt at an earlier date. Further evidence of the instability of the families is seen by the high rate of broken homes from which the children came. A broken home was defined as one in which there had been any discontinuity between the original parents, such as death, divorce, separation, remarriage, and so on. Forty-eight per cent of the children came from such homes.

The striking fact which is reflected in Table 1 is the almost complete absence of children from private and parochial schools in this study. There are many reasons to account for this. Parochial schools with their larger classes and less adequate mental health services find it more difficult to contain children whose primary symptom is acting out. Consequently, parents seek entrance into public schools when their children fail to adjust in parochial schools. Another factor is that these schools

can be more selective in their admission policies, whereas the public schools are committed to admitting all the children of all the people. Private schools, by their very nature, tend to draw children from higher socioeconomic homes, which are more often integrated and socially more organized. Few children from such families fail to make at least a marginal adjustment in our schools, for their parents place a premium on education and are apt to accept professional help when their children are in trouble.

TABLE 2
ABILITY RATINGS OF 140 CHILDREN ON
PSYCHIATRIC EXEMPTION

Classification	Frequency	% of total
Superior	3	2.2
Bright normal	3	2.2
Above average	14	10.0
Average	27	19.3
Low average	22	15.7
Dull normal	21	15.0
Borderline	17	12.1
Retarded	16	11.4
Unknown	17	12.1
Totals	140	100.0

The data from Table 2 (see above) came from a variety of both individual and group intelligence tests. Whenever several test results were available, the most recent *individually* administered instrument was considered to be the most valid.

The authors were somewhat surprised to find that approximately half of the exemptions seemed to have low-average ability or better. This is especially remarkable in view of the fact that these children generally disliked school and did not prize academic achievement. It is well known that lack of interest in the academic tends to depress scores on the typical intelligence test which measures verbal ability. It is true that there are more children scoring in the borderline and lower classifications than would be expected from a normal population. In view of the selective factors at work

in this particular sample, however, it is surprising that they show up so well in ability.

As would be expected, considerably more than half of the exemptions were two or more grades retarded in achievement for their actual placement at the time they were put on exemption. Less than one-quarter of the children were functioning up to grade expectancy in basic skills.

The data in Table 3 (below) are not so objective as would be preferred. Much of the data is inferred from the behavior of the children while in school as reported by others. It seems entirely likely, however, that most of these children did, indeed, cordially dislike being in school since they obtained so little gratification from their school activities.

It would seem, moreover, that these children did not ordinarily participate in organized social events. In at least three-quarters of the cases, there seemed to be membership in no activity of this kind. In only 10 per cent was evidence found that the children joined one or more organized social institutions, such as clubs, church, Boy Scouts, and so on.

Parents often assert that schools tend to treat children more permissively than parents do. The implication is clear that if discipline were more firm, the children would be more conforming. In this particular sample, however, it was found that in about 80 per cent of the cases where a judgment could be obtained, the same sort of behavior was evident at home that was observed in school.

TABLE 3
ATTITUDES TOWARD SCHOOL OF EXEMPTS

Category	Frequency	% of total
Actively dislikes	60	43
Indifferent	9	06
Seems to like	26	19
Very positive	2	01
Fear of	19	14
Confused and disorganized	7	05
No data	17	12
Totals	140	100

In an effort to discover the influence of physical factors, the authors tried to obtain data on the health of the children, including observable handicaps. It was found that about a third seemed deviant in appearance—that is, too short for their age, too heavy, and so on. Furthermore, in those cases where data were available, only 18 per cent seemed to have significant physical disorders. Thus, while physical factors may have played a major role in some of the cases, it seems that the majority were not influenced by these factors.

An analysis of the diagnoses given these children at the time of their exemption revealed little. Unfortunately, 86 per cent were given the label "personality disorder." This broad category included children who were mentally ill as well as those whose behavior might be considered normal within a particular subculture of our society. As the authors reviewed the records on these children, we were struck by the fact that a small percentage of the total seemed to have definite psychopathology. We estimate this at about 10 per cent. The vast majority come from homes where little or no premium is placed on educational attainments. The parents often were not graduated from high school themselves and encouraged their own children to obtain jobs at the earliest practicable moment. It is well known that children tend to identify closely with the attitudes and values of their parents. Small wonder that these children obtain little satisfaction from books. Small wonder, also, that these parents profit little from referral to well-meaning agencies who identify with intellectual attainment and cultural conformity. In a real sense, the schools speak one language and the families from which the children in this study come speak another.

When we looked at the reasons for the earliest referral of each of these children to the school mental health team, we found that placement—that is, underachieving—led the list. Indeed, 47 per cent of the cases

showed school placement as the reason for the first referral to the mental health services of the schools. The next most frequent reason was acting-out behavior. The remaining reasons were spread over a large number of items. These figures seem to add weight to the idea that achievement in school was the problem from the beginning. The statistics on general ability of the students, as noted earlier, do not suggest that they lacked the basic intellect to achieve. Attitudes toward the offerings of the school, then, seem a more likely answer.

At the time of the first exemption, the reasons for referral were again tabulated. It was found that 41 per cent of the children were referred for acting-out behavior, whereas 31 per cent were truancy problems. None of the remaining reasons topped 7 per cent.

Follow-up

In the spring of 1960 attendance teachers made home visits to discover the current status of the children who had been on exemption. The authors had noticed that some parents finally sought help when they were forced to be responsible for their child twenty-four hours every day. It was thought that there might be other positive as well as negative results of being placed on exemption. The data in Table 4 (page 215) summarize the findings of these follow-up visits.

If we add up those categories which seem to be positive in their implications—hospitalized, employed, back to school, and receiving tutoring—we find that they total 53 per cent of the total. It seems likely, however, that many will remain marginally adjusted at best as they go through life.

Summary

This study attempted to evaluate children out of school on psychiatric exemption during 1957-1958 in Rochester, New York. The average exempt was about fourteen years of age, male, white, of average

TABLE 4
STATUS OF CHILDREN APPROXIMATELY THREE YEARS
AFTER BEING PLACED ON EXEMPTION

Category	Frequency	Percentage of total
At home but more mature	4	03
At home, status quo	14	10
Left community, adjustment unknown	13	09
Institutionalized:		
Protective custody or jail	16	11
Hospitalization	16	11
Delinquency, case pending	1	01
Employed in community:		
Good adjustment	8	06
Marginal adjustment	2	01
Adjustment unknown	28	20
Out of wedlock mother	11	08
Back to school	20	14
Deceased	1	01
At home, receiving tutoring	1	01
No data	5	04
Totals	140	100

ability but two years behind expectancy in achievement. His parents were apt to have

been divorced, separated, or remarried. They lived in sections of the city where social disorganization was common. The families were well known to social agencies and to school mental health workers for more than three years before being placed on exemption. The parents placed little value on educational achievement and this view was assimilated by the child. Physical factors do not seem to be significant in the development of this child. His behavior in class, when he was there, was disrupting.

The follow-up aspect of this study showed that not all of the outcomes of being on exemption were necessarily bad. While the authors continue to hold that the psychiatric exemption is a last-resort measure, we may have a little less compunction in recommending such action in the future.

On Reaching the Age of Sixty-Five

By LOUIS GINSBERG
Paterson, New Jersey

As I look back on all the years that went
And wonder what remains of any good,
Perhaps, to be abiding permanent,
I did, though limited, the best I could.
I count my joys: my two sons and my love;
My teaching hours during which, though
rare, I'd find
Incendiary phrase to hover above
The class to set akindle some young mind.
But most of all, I feel the task, the duty,
That Nature had assigned me, as a debt,
Of leaving my own signature of Beauty
On all the things around me has been met:
The mission she allotted is fulfilled.
And so I pause content. My doubts are
stilled.

TRICKS OF THE TRADE

Edited by TED GORDON

A SUPERINTENDENT'S CREDO: He writes that this is not exactly a "trick," but your editor thinks you may like it:

A SUPERINTENDENT'S CREDO

Surveys community opinion
Uses democratic techniques
Promotes best possible staff relationships
Establishes set procedures
Represents board of education policy
Interprets the over-all school program
Names and fixes individual responsibility
Treats always of pupil well-being
Evaluates continually
Negotiates settlement of conflicts
Develops sincerity and respect
Encourages constructive communication
Notes and anticipates future planning
Translates suggestions into suitable action.

—PAUL W. SCHMIDTCHEN, Metuchen
(New Jersey) Public Schools.

EXAM FILE: Keep a file of your examination questions. Avoid using any questions in precisely the same form in which you have previously phrased them. The satisfaction that you derive from steering clear of a professional rut pays big dividends.—EMMA REINHARDT, Eastern Illinois State College, Charleston, Illinois.

DEVELOPING A TECHNICAL VOCABULARY: Since people today live in a technical world, it becomes necessary to develop a technical vocabulary which permits the individual to refer to machine parts, tools, equipment, and electronics assemblies by their proper names. In order to help students develop a technical vocabulary in the industrial arts shops at El

Monte (California) High School, each instructor has been asked to make a list of technical terms which the student will be expected to know and which he will encounter in the shop. The shop crafts instructor has developed a shadow-box display board on which is mounted a peg-board pallet. A spotlight is focused on this board, which is titled, "What's My Name?" Each day the tool is changed. At the time of roll call a short discussion is held about the tool or material—bringing out such points as the proper pronunciation of the work, the spelling, the use, care, source, price, and other pertinent information about the object being displayed. There is also a bulletin board on the outside of the main shop building in which a tool or material is displayed with its name. This has caused considerable attention and interest. This display is changed each week.—Third Annual Conference on Good Teaching, California Teachers Association, Southern Section.

SWITCH AND TEACH: "Walnut Grove teachers had a 'switch day' recently. On that day each teacher was assigned to another room and grade level."—Ferguson-Florissant (St. Louis, Missouri) School District R-2 *Review*.

SOCK WITH SOCRATES: In teaching Plato's "Apology" to his ninth graders, one of our teachers asked his students to cast and enact the trial scene in a modern format. Our young Socrates, Meletos, and others performed enthusiastically. Plato received his highest accolade from one young lady who admitted effusively, "Socrates is as good as Perry Mason!"—JACK L. LARSEN, Rich Township High School, Park Forest, Illinois.

Common Diseases of Rhetoric

By WAYNE ALFORD

THE JOB OF TEACHING SECONDARY PUPILS how to develop both written and oral command of the English language is a many-sided problem, to the solution of which educators have devoted toilsome hours of research. The broadest side of the problem is psychological in nature, for the typical English teacher customarily deals with pupils of varying degrees of ability, interest, and maturity; but another side, perhaps second in scope only to the psychological view, is characteristically rhetorical in nature, for it is concerned with the art or science of all literary uses of the language, whether written or spoken. Included in the rhetorical aspects of written language are those familiar qualities of accuracy, conciseness, fluency, and grammatical comprehension, all generally clung to as desirable goals in the secondary writing program.

As a contribution to the fulfillment of these goals, I have undertaken to set forth in this article, in a more simplified form than is currently available,* definitions and illustrations of certain vices of language considered by good grammarians to be detrimental to good English. My purpose is to help the teacher to recognize and more effectively combat the vices as enemies of

those qualities of rhetoric mentioned above.

The first vice to be considered is cacozeal, or affected diction. Because of the pupil's overeagerness to seem eloquent, he frequently and unwarily falls victim to this fault. The idea of stripping his copy to the bare necessities cannot be overemphasized, even at the danger of deleting some words or phrases which might contribute creditably to his work. Too little is better than too much. For example, the sentence, "It is my candid estimation of the entire situation that it may be borne with to some tolerable degree," can be adequately and more economically expressed: "In my opinion, that situation may be tolerated." Malapropism, another form of cacozeal, consists of the ignorant misuse of words. The practice of this vice is seen frequently in the pupil's confusion of "eminent" with "imminent"; "to" with "too" or "two"; "affect" with "effect"; "transport" with "transfer"; "red" with "read"; and "lose" with "loose," to mention but a few.

Because of his failure to reread and "rethink" his work, tautology, or useless repetition, sometimes appears in the pupil's writing. To help remedy this, the teacher might encourage proofreading and instruct the pupil to list several expressions of the same idea and choose the most accurate and appealing of these for use in his theme. Such usage as, "He cannot escape me, for it is impossible" and "The mammal lives by the food that nourishes it," should be avoided.

Closely akin to tautology is pleonasm, or the needless telling of what is already understood. Common to this vice are such

EDITOR'S NOTE

Wait, friends, CH has not turned medical! Rather, we present for your edification a lexicography of evils which befall students who attempt writing in the English language. The maladies are frightening, indeed, and should compel any writer, including myself, to avoid being afflicted by them. The compiler is assistant director of curriculum for the Jackson (Mississippi) public schools.

* Sister Miriam Joseph, in her book, *Shakespeare's Use of the Arts of Language* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1947), describes in some detail Shakespeare's dramatic use of the vices. Joseph's work serves as source material for this article.

redundant utterances as, "I saw it with my own eyes," "I heard it with my ears," or "The night was black with darkness." Again, careful proofreading and revision can aid in combatting pleonasm.

The pupil who misuses cases, genders, and tenses is guilty of a vice called solecism. Although this fault is considered among the most inexcusable in English grammar, expressions such as "Never be too familiarity with people," "She said that she would be absence today," or "If we had succeeded, we would all had been heroes," are not infrequently detected in secondary writing.

Not least among the linguistic vices that plague clarity of expression is a vice called amphibology, or ambiguity. Misplaced modifiers and poor punctuation are often responsible for amphibology. Notice the structure of "The boy sat by his dog soundly sleeping." Who slept—the boy or the dog? One might recall Quince's ignorant disregard for punctuation in his prologue:

If we offend, it is with our good will.

That you should think, we come not to offend,
But with good will. To show our simple skill

That is the true beginning of our end.

Workbook exercises in the correct use of

modifiers and punctuation should aid in attaining clarity and exactness.

The degradation of a subject by the use of base words is a vice known as tapinosis. The use of this vice by secondary-school pupils is sometimes attributed to an insufficient vocabulary. While it is not expected that most adolescents will possess voluminous vocabularies, consistent use of the dictionary and discreet vocabulary drills can provide a source of serviceable words for appropriate occasions. The use of "stream" for river, "cart" for wagon or coach, and "boat" for warship or ocean liner, is to be discouraged. Another use of tapinosis is the defacing of character, also an undesirable habit for beginning writers.

The last vice of language to be considered is acyron, or the use of a word opposite in meaning to the intended word. The impression left by this vice is one of unprecedented ignorance, for it not only reflects the limited vocabulary of the pupil but also his inability to distinguish between familiar words of similar spelling. The following examples illustrate the point: "He was hired, for he was thought to be the most senseless man for the job," "He will be condemned into everlasting redemption for that crime!"



Capturing Youth's Energies

The point, then, is this: Adolescent energies can be successfully captured for learning, intellectual activities can come to captivate their interest, if they are allowed to do so. If a good student is given a chance to achieve for his school and receive the rewards attendant upon doing so, more adolescents will be interested in becoming good students. If interscholastic games were not only athletic games but contained the contents of mathematics and English and sewing and bricklaying, the distribution of adolescent energies would be very different than it now is. If schools in a city or

county competed in a "scholastic fair," with teams, exhibits, and tournaments, the impact on adolescents' distribution of energies would be impressive. The solution is not simple in its execution, for it consists of something more than a new course in the curriculum, or graded classes, or sifting out the "gifted children." Yet if it is carried out, and carried out well, it could pull adolescent energies into those directions of learning, of creativity, and of intellectual excitement for its own sake toward which a democratic society aims.—JAMES S. COLEMAN in *Phi Delta Kappan*.

Another Look at TEAM TEACHING

By
MILTON E. PLOGHOFT

TO THE UNINITIATED, team teaching may mean a variety of things and to one who has spent considerable time studying the developments in team teaching it means a variety of things. In this respect team teaching is not unlike the term "reading readiness" which seems to mean various things in various places, although it is fortunate that the outcomes anticipated for "reading readiness" are rather commonly agreed upon.

In August of 1961 this writer participated in a conference devoted to the consideration of team teaching, at which time several well-known administrators and researchers presented the philosophy and

plan of team teaching. At the conclusion of the conference, and after additional study of the matter, the search for an operational definition of team teaching was still unsatisfied, and the philosophy which purportedly undergirds team teaching remained questionable.

It must be stated, however, that new ventures in educational practice, as team teaching is said by some to be, may be slowly understood and hesitantly practiced by the perennial skeptic. With the admonition to the reader to bear this possibility in mind, let us proceed to take another look at team teaching.

One of the most widely espoused of the "basic philosophies" supporting team teaching contains these principal tenets:

(1) Teachers differ greatly with reference to knowledge and to skill; existing teaching strength can be made available to large numbers of pupils through utilization of team teaching.

(2) The hierarchy contained in the team teaching plan (as proposed by Philip Lambert and as practiced in the Franklin School in Lexington, Massachusetts) provides a means for recognizing exceptional teachers in order that they may be rewarded with higher salaries; consequently, other teachers will be motivated to excellence.

(3) Young children in self-contained classrooms run the risk of overidentification with the mother or father substitute, the teacher.

(4) Pupils may suffer an educational loss if they work one year with an inferior

EDITOR'S NOTE

The recipe is quite simple. Take an established, competent teacher, add two or more less-ripened assistants, blend to form an integrated team, and place in a conspicuous spot before a large group of youngsters. Then comes the period of watchful waiting. At this time, we cannot evaluate the full impact of team teaching upon the pupils or, even, the individual members of the teaching group. Since this concept presents an exciting challenge to the schools, many administrators have embarked upon the team-teaching program without sufficient introspection and adequate preparation. It seems that the key is to proceed slowly. These sentiments are shared by the author, who is an associate professor at the Teachers College, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.

teacher; in the team situation, they work with several teachers.

(5) Team teaching provides an effective orientation period for the new teacher.

In "team teaching" situations outside Lexington one may find the hierarchy absent, but it is appropriate to examine the items set forth above, inasmuch as they have been enunciated by Lambert, who at this time is engaged in intensive research in team teaching, and inasmuch as they are evident in the Lexington plan, one of the earliest formal plans to operate in this country.

The proposition that suggests that teachers are different cannot be argued, but in its application to team teaching, difficulties arise. First, since the Lambert plan requires a team leader and teaching members who are less competent (that is why they are paid less) than the leader, the administrator must intentionally recruit some inadequate teachers or arbitrarily classify some as less competent than the leader. If this is the case, and in practice it must be, then team teaching will not merely attempt to capitalize upon teacher differences, it will lead to attempts to produce differences within a staff where they may not naturally exist. Although the fact must be accepted that teaching competency is variable among individuals, it cannot be assumed that the variability exists in each and every faculty to the degree that team teaching may be justified on this basis.

The second proposition, which states that the hierarchy in the teaching team provides a means whereby good teachers may be recognized and rewarded, cannot be defended as deserving inclusion in any plan which is at the outset concerned with more effective teaching-learning situations. Certain teachers could be paid more than others if they were to have 100 pupils in a self-contained classroom. This is, of course, beside the point, and borders on professional chicanery. The means for adequate salaries for teachers, important as it is,

must not become a consideration in this instance.

Whether or not some children identify too closely with one teacher in the self-contained classroom is again questionable. It may be argued that the teacher provides a necessary relationship where an effective parent-child relationship is absent. In fact, teachers in the team situation hasten to point out that some pupils identify closely with only one member of the team, and that this often is good to the extent that it fills a need.

It is true that pupils may work with an ineffective teacher in the self-contained classroom. In the teaching team this teacher will spread her influence more thinly over 75-120 pupils instead of working with 30 exclusively. Whether this is a strength in team teaching is doubtful. The fact remains that the profession must continue to search for a means for improving teachers and must tackle the job of providing an exit from the profession for incompetent teachers. This is not a task for team teaching, nor does it add strength to team teaching.

Related to the problem of ineffective teachers is that of the inexperienced teacher. Here it is said that the team arrangement provides valuable experiences for the novice and the inept teacher. But this is injecting a supervisory matter into an arrangement that is supposed to offer a better educational experience for boys and girls. Interclass visitations and internships are recognized as supervisory techniques, but team teaching cannot justify itself to any extent as an opportunity to exercise these techniques.

Fortunately, the team teaching experiment in the Franklin School at Lexington, Massachusetts, is being carefully evaluated throughout its pilot stage of ten years. Unfortunately, there are many schools where team teaching is being instituted without experimental controls and with the apparent assumption that the Lexington plan has

found team teaching to be a worthy model. Mrs. Ethel Bears, principal at the Franklin School, constantly reiterates that the project is experimental, that conclusive evidence is not in.

Dr. Lambert points out that the only thing that he can now say concerning the effects of team teaching on boys and girls is that "it doesn't hurt them." Yet there are buildings being built for team teaching and teams being organized to teach in them. These schools should hasten to get their projects developed on an experimental basis if public education is to derive the benefit of an answer to the team-teaching question. The haunting dilemma which re-

mains as of this date, however, is the lack of a sound philosophy to support the experimentation in team teaching. In fact, it appears that the great experiment now in progress will continue to search for worthy hypotheses to test as it goes along, and one of the outcomes of the experiment may happily prove to be a basic philosophy.

SUGGESTED READINGS

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Lambert, Philip. "Team Teaching for the Elementary School," *Educational Leadership*, XVIII (November, 1960), 85.

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Me—a P.T.A. President?

By EDWARD J. NUSSEL

Teacher of Social Studies, Harding Junior High School, Detroit

After three active years of P.T.A. executive board service in the school where I teach, it seemed the time was ripe to "let Joe do it next time." However, our nominating committee had other ideas as I listened in stunned silence to their reasons why I should be the next president of our association. Envisioning myself as the buffer between administration and parents was not a comfortable thought. Furthermore, being the referee among a group of loquacious, sometimes discontented women did not appear to be an advantageous position either.

Time was needed to prepare arguments in rebuttal so that the refusal would be a tactful one. I turned to family and friends for advice. My wife, usually quite verbal with recommendations, quietly snarled, "It's up to you." My sister, an old P.T.A. hand, made some remark concerned with my sanity. My cohorts at school offered little help except a few aside comments about "making points with the boss." It was more than clear that I was strictly on my own in making this decision.

Pressure, plus my own egotism, forced a positive reply after two weeks of squirming. When the committee said, "Who else is prepared to handle the job?" there was little for me to do but nod affirma-

tively. I now had the summer to prepare for my Waterloo.

The gray hairs of apprehension proved superfluous. Everyone gave tremendous co-operation. Five other men teachers agreed to chairmanships, helping somewhat to balance the gender composition of the board and thus ruining my monopoly. The efficiency with which everyone carried out his duties was amazing.

The results of this rather unusual arrangement certainly helped strengthen the school-community bond in our area and has led me to the following conclusions: (1) Although it is preferable to have a parent for P.T.A. president, a teacher can successfully carry out the job, if necessary. However, he should be careful lest the added responsibilities interfere with his primary duty of teaching. (2) Teachers should feel the professional obligation to assist the P.T.A. in their school. However, pressure from the administration forcing teacher participation is undesirable.

If you have some extra time, if your spouse doesn't mind strange phone calls between 7:00 A.M. and 11:00 P.M., and if you wish to create a happy relationship with parents in your school district, take the job of P.T.A. president. You'll never regret it!

Classification and Evaluation

Differentiation Needed for Subjects, Teachers, and Students in the Comprehensive High School

By THOMAS P. O'BRIEN

AMERICAN EDUCATION is swimming in "sauce for the goose." Far too many school policies are sweeping generalizations applying to all teachers or all students or all subjects: what we do for one we feel compelled to do for all. Mediocrity is often the result of our inability (or our unwillingness) to make further refinements and to give consideration to the relative values of each of these refinements. Only as we are able to classify and evaluate the components of education can we take intelligent steps toward improvement. It's time we recognize that a goose and a gander are different and that a flock of ganders won't produce eggs!

American thought rebels against classification and differentiation. We tend to believe that "hierarchy" implies iniquity, and that "equality" and "justice" are synonymous. This peculiar misinterpretation of democracy refutes Aristotle's prerogative to classify plant life above mineral life and

Dante's right to condemn the treacherous to a lower level of hell than the violent. The American emphasis upon the individual asks that everything be considered unique and equal; this is to deny values. Intelligent thought cannot take place in a vacuum; it requires a frame of reference based upon classification and order.

It might be well to point out that American educators were in the fore in the attacks on the classical thought process, and our schools have often perpetuated the misconceptions. In its extreme forms this resulted in our considering "adjustment" as an entity equal to "accomplishment," and "self-expression" as important as "comprehension." Our critics have disturbed us by seizing upon these extremes as examples of our educational folly. We object to the criticisms made by Rickover, Barzun, Ribicoff, and the Council for Basic Education because their criticisms are "not generally true." The important thing, however, is that where they are specifically correct (and in many cases they are), we are confused in our attempts to correct the situation. We know we can't make improvement by sweeping changes of policy or curriculum, and piecemeal improvements are ineffective. What we need are a re-evaluation and classification to determine what we want to do, for whom, and what is required for that particular task.

The purpose of this article is not to establish classifications and to recommend the differentiation that should be made for each, but to point out the need. Certainly it is a most difficult undertaking, which can be realized only if a consensus of categories and values evolves. Until this is accom-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Some provocative questions are raised here. We must admit that they will not be easily resolved, for the answers will be as varied as the educators proposing them. The author admits that we may rebel against the thought that all things and all people composing our school system are not the same. Equality, it seems, is a noble term but one which is not completely applicable to the school. Read carefully the thoughts of the junior high principal of Shaker High School in Newtonville, New York, and then let us have your reactions.

plished, however, only superficial improvements can be made. Examples of the fallacies that result from our inability to classify and differentiate point the direction we must take.

Differentiations have been made in regard to subjects, but only superficially. We have divided subjects into general categories such as "constants," "electives," and "required" subjects. The result of these classifications, however, seems to affect only the amount of time students devote to each of these subjects. If an equal amount of time is spent in driver education and in a science class, each will earn the same unit of credit. Many will contend that driver education is as important as any other subject on the grounds that all knowledge is lost in the event of a highway death. Would one support a course in boating or the use of firearms on the same basis? The difference in the arguments is only in degree and not in kind. It is time we recognized that education and training are not the same; that there is and should be a differentiation between academic disciplines and vocational courses, between physical development and intellectual development. Our policies should reflect this in all details, such as the number of subjects a student should carry, the length and time of classes, the number of students within each class, and, above all, the contributions made by the teacher in each of these areas.

Current educational and public philosophy recognizes a teacher as a teacher and makes little or no distinction as to grade level or subject. Pay scales, preparation, certification, and administrative policies in regard to numbers of preparations, pupil load, and so on, are made without regard to the value of the contribution of each. If differentiations are made, they are made on the basis of supply of teachers in an area, or amount of special equipment necessary, or some basis other than sound philosophical judgment.

If one accepts the fact that subjects do not all have the same value, are the teachers who transmit the knowledge of each of these subjects making equal contributions? Is the teacher who teaches 50-60 girls the arts of homemaking contributing in the same measure as the teacher of advanced English 12, with 125 students? Is it sensible to assign 125 students to the latter, ignoring the preparation and paper-correcting load, and then to assign 60 students to the homemaking teacher on the basis of the number of stoves available? Even if student loads were equal, would the contributions be equal? (This is not to say that a poor English teacher is more valuable than a good homemaking teacher, but to maintain that they are equal on the grounds that homemaking is as valuable for one student as English for another is to deny that English has more value than homemaking; it is to deny a responsibility to mankind which transcends our lives.) That there is a need for both is not denied; but they are not *equally* necessary and valuable.

Even within a subject area, differentiations should be made with consideration for teaching assignments. School administrators and teachers recognize that a class of English for average ninth-grade students is not the same as a twelfth-grade top ability class. We *know* this to be a fact, but we do not *recognize* it as a fact in our daily operation. The scholarly teacher, deeply absorbed in Elizabethan verse, may end up talking to himself in a classroom where thirty ninth graders talk to one another. The extroverted, alert young teacher with a genuine concern for the problems of the adolescent lacks the background and love of the classics to inspire the senior with a scholarly inclination. How many of the scholarly teachers are driven out of the profession by a fourth-period study hall, and how many of the extroverted teachers leave the students with the impression that literature consists of the short stories of Jesse Stuart and Jack London? To meet the chal-

lenges of each of these positions requires different skills, backgrounds, and personalities. Let only the administrator who assigns these tasks indiscriminately dispute the fact that they are different. If they are different, let only those who feel that a high-school diploma will contribute in the same measure to mankind as a college degree maintain they are equal. If one accepts the fact that they are both different and unequal, how can one justify equality in preparation, certification, teaching load, salary schedule, extracurricular assignment, and all other "equal treatment"?

The third distinction that must be made is in the raw material itself—our students. This area would be the simplest to implement on the basis of the preceding areas, but it is the one which has the most explosive potential. While grouping is generally accepted, it is doubtful whether school boards and the general public are ready to make further sharp distinctions in such matters as length of class period and school day, number of required subjects, special library considerations, or any of a host of other distinctions which might logically follow. To fail to make these distinc-

tions for fear of "intellectual snobbery" or "poor social attitudes" is to perpetuate the disrespect for the intellect.

To envision a comprehensive school which recognizes and utilizes a philosophy that has classified and evaluated its subjects, teachers, and students is not to disregard all of its offerings, faculty, and students. That public education has a responsibility to all children is indisputable; that instructors in typing and driver education have valuable contributions to make is not to be denied. The task is, rather, to grant each subject, teacher, and student a logical place in American education.

The current concept of the comprehensive high school is that it is an institution which offers something for everyone. What we must do, therefore, is to further define and to classify the "somethings" and the "everyones."

When the lines have been drawn, we must not hesitate, for fear of being "partial" or "arbitrary," to take steps toward the improvement of one classification independently of all others. We can no longer afford to proceed on the basis that everything is relative and, therefore, equal.

The Need for Research

Perhaps our most critical problem is the need for research of high quality. The crisis in our national security is almost certain to be long-range and public concern over the curriculum will be of parallel duration. Since a period of concern invariably results in tampering of some sort, alteration of the curriculum is inevitable. We have altogether too little evidence upon which to base such change and the hour of encounter may well be characterized by a degree of wheel-spinning. Only through much careful research can we hope to minimize waste. We are in great want for ways in which to transfer the objectives of education into common everyday classroom practices that give some guarantee of achieving the desired end. Much

research must . . . take place at the critical level of the classroom. When one scans the reported research of the last few years it becomes evident that the classroom is seemingly an undesirable place to perform research—the need is nonetheless crucial.

We must find out how to analyze a subject in order to determine the concepts and proficiencies that are most useful to the learner. Some concepts serve as a basis for advanced learning and some do not. Moreover, some are common to several subjects and we need to learn how to offer them in the curriculum so that the individual subjects are served and so that useless repetition does not take place.—LOUIS J. RUBIN in the *Journal of Secondary Education*.

Are Times Out of Joint?

By JAMES BINNEY

LEARNING THE DATES OF EVENTS—as an activity in itself—has been deservedly unpopular for years, and no one laments the passing of forced labor upon selected lists of dates of discoveries, births, battles, treaties, and laws of various kinds. Yet it may be unfortunate that some students lack what may be called a time sense. My attention was called to this when an intelligent student I knew began speculating upon whether or not Edmund Spenser (1552-1599) might have talked with knights returning from the First Crusade (beginning 1096; Second Crusade, 1147) before he wrote about the Redcross Knight.

No one would argue that knowing the dates of Spenser's life or even the dates of the Crusades would be necessary for any student. Yet there are certain relationships in time which must be understood. B.C. and A.D., for example, trouble some students. For other students the past seems to be merely one mass of years. The Battle of Gettysburg may easily have taken place before the Battle of Marathon; Queen Elizabeth may have lived before Cleopatra.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Chronology is the science of measuring time in fixed periods, and of dating events accurately and arranging them in the order of occurrence. (We must credit Webster for an assist on this one.) This article is concerned with a study involving the proper placement of men and events in their times, and the results are interesting and amusing. Why not try such lists out in your own classes? The outcomes may be just as revealing as those described here. The author is on the faculty of West Chester (Pennsylvania) State College.

Everything belonging to the past is vaguely lumped together as long ago.

To discover if any large per cent of students shared a faulty time sense, I presented three lists to a number of classes. The students were college freshmen who were questioned during the first week of school before college could have had any effect upon them. Each list contained items which were to be arranged in chronological order.

Arranged in correct order (as was not the case when they were given to the students), the lists read:

List 1. The Flood, Battle of Marathon, Caesar's conquest of Gaul, birth of Christ, Crusades, discovery of America, Battle of Waterloo, Battle of Gettysburg, World War I, student's arrival at college.

List 2. Plato, Caesar, Mark Antony, Charlemagne, Alfred, Richard the Lion Hearted, Columbus, B. Franklin, Washington, Stonewall Jackson. (Franklin and Washington might be placed in reverse order since they lived during the same period.)

List 3. Chaucer, Shakespeare, Donne, A. Pope, Robert Burns, Wordsworth, (E. A. Poe, Longfellow, Tennyson—any order), T. S. Eliot.

List 1 was given to a number of classes over a period of several years. Only 10 per cent arranged the ten items in correct order. The results were rather better than the figure shows, however, because many students had only one of the items misplaced. Surprisingly enough, since many of the answers were written at a time when news of the Olympic Games filled the papers, the item which caused the most trouble was the Battle of Marathon. Had this one event been removed from history, 90 per cent might have arranged the items correctly.

There may be significance in some of the results:

In a sampling of 55 papers, twelve students placed the birth of Christ before the Battle of Marathon. Several placed Gettysburg before Marathon. Others placed the discovery of America, the Crusades, World War I, and Waterloo before Marathon.

The two most astonishing placements were (1) the birth of Christ before Marathon, and (2) the Crusades before the birth of Christ. (Five students placed the Crusades before the birth of Christ.)

One placed the birth of Christ before the Flood.

Statistical treatment of results would here be meaningless. It might be said that (with the exception of the Battle of Marathon) most of the students could accurately place the items in List 1. The relatively few errors, excluding Marathon, suggest, however, that some students do have vague ideas concerning time.

List 2 was given under the same conditions to similar groups of students. Some high-school students may never have heard of Plato. Unless reading lists are entirely too barren these days, the students might reasonably have been expected to know stories of Charlemagne, Alfred, Richard, and Stonewall Jackson. In literature and history they must have met Caesar, Mark Antony, Columbus, Franklin, and Washington. Since Washington and Franklin lived at the same time, students were credited with correct listings regardless of which of the two they placed first.

Plato, as we might expect, caused much trouble.

Ten of 45 samples placed Stonewall Jackson before Franklin. Five placed Jackson before Alfred. One placed Jackson before

Plato, one placed him before Caesar, and one placed him before Richard.

Charlemagne and Alfred were often misplaced.

The results here indicate a considerable difficulty with men in time.

List 3 was devoted to figures in literature. Here only 4 per cent of the students arranged the items correctly. Confusion in placing the men in order was rather general.

It was not unexpected that Donne should be misplaced. He appeared in every position from one to ten, two placing him last.

Unexpectedly: Two placed Poe last. Four Burns last. One placed Tennyson last. One placed Poe before Shakespeare. Two placed Wordsworth before Shakespeare.

It seems rather obvious that percentages and numbers of cases are not too important in this study. In each list there was at least one item which caused trouble and which, had it been removed, might have increased perfect scores. In general the more than 100 students involved seemed to have the ability to place most items in correct order.

It also seems obvious that some students have only vague ideas of the periods in history in which certain events took place or the periods during which certain men lived. Vagueness must cause trouble for them in their comprehension of material they must read.

No one would suggest that it would be worth while to memorize dates as students used to do. Yet it might be worth a little trouble to have present-day readers aware that the past is not *one year*, long ago—that the ancient Greek philosophers, the Crusaders, the cathedral builders, the Elizabethans, the Victorians, and the Charleston dancers of the 1920's were not all living at the same time.

EVENTS AND OPINIONS

SUPERSPEED READING: Americans, in general, pay homage to the speedsters of our times. Accolades are bestowed upon the sports-car racer, the champion mile runner, and the winning jockey. Now we can add the speed reader to the other masters of time and space consumption. Understand us. We are not against displays of championships, but we do feel that exhibitions of speed are acceptable at certain times and in certain circumstances. Not for reading. It is of the utmost importance that the level of reading and comprehension be elevated to an acceptable point, depending upon the capacities of an individual. However, setting up a seventeen-year-old boy who has attained the amazing skill of reading 7,000 words a minute as an ultimate standard of what can be done with this business of reading is most disquieting. Perhaps what we need is to vary our speed of reading depending upon what is being read. Some novels, books, newspapers, and periodicals can be read rapidly without missing much. In fact, they can be left unread. However, literary giants of the ages should be read with deliberation and contemplation, savoring the choice passages like good vintage wine.

This is what Charles Poore had in mind when he made the following remark in the *New York Times*: "Nowadays the speed-reading champions do their cutting [of books they read] by rocketing through seven masterpieces a day. What they get of them by way of cadences and harmonies and miraculously turned phrases, immortal choice of words, I don't know. But I do believe that the best way to skip a book is to skip it entirely."

PAST PERFECT: When a teacher is suspended from active duty in the classroom, it is usually due to recognized in-

fractions of certain rules and regulations. The separation occurs, generally, without much fanfare. However, when a teacher is suspended for adhering to a standard beyond that set by a school, this makes news. The newspapers were quick to pick up a story concerning the dismissal of a high-school mathematics teacher in Chicago who failed any student unable to score 100 per cent on his tests. It seems that his 30 per cent failure record was a source of irritation to the principals, who advocate a 6 per cent attrition rate. In defense of his system, the teacher recounted the procedure which he followed. His students are given four chances to score 100 per cent. If they make it the first time, they get a grade of "superior" and are excused from regular class assignment during the remainder of the five-week quarter. Passing the second time rates an "excellent" mark; success the third time is classified "good," and a perfect mark on the do-or-die last attempt merits a mere "fair." The youngsters who strike out on the fourth try fail and have to make up the credit in summer school.

As noble as the aspirations of this teacher may be, we feel that they are out of line in terms of acceptable evaluative procedures. We have the right to demand the best of the students according to their individual capacities. However, demanding perfection of all, at this stage of the game, is somewhat hard to take.

EDUCATION SYMBOL WANTED: You can win a trip around the world or any one of several other awards by submitting an accepted design which depicts the story of American education. The New York World's Fair of 1964-65, with the co-operation of the National Education Association, is looking for the American educator who comes up with the best idea for such a sym-

bol, which will be placed at the entrance to the Hall of Education. This edifice will seek to tell the story of learning in all its forms and the applied principles of universal education in a democratic society. Attention will be given to the major new developments in the educational process, including curriculum development, teacher training, methodology of instruction.

Thus, a symbol is needed, one which would embody all that American education has been and, probably, will be. Have an idea? A rough sketch accompanied by a written description on a single sheet of paper is all that is needed. Include your name, address, and educational position, and mail your entry to Hall of Education, Symbol Search, International Fair Consultants, 10 Columbus Circle, New York 19. February 28, 1962, is the dead line.

INFLUENCE PAYS OFF: A Michigan State University scientist, Dr. Lincoln C. Pettit, has come forth with a new theory for paying teachers. He feels that compensation in both pay and prestige should be based on the influence a teacher has on his students. Thus, elementary and kindergarten teachers, who exert a greater influence than do high-school and college instructors, should get "the handsomest awards of pay and prestige." He believes that the traditional view of having the best teachers on the higher levels must be softened; the requirements for teachers in the lower levels dictate the need for excellence.

The elementary school teachers have found a friend in Dr. Pettit. While we are not in a position to decide which teachers exert the greatest influence upon students, we support Dr. Pettit's underlying thesis that elementary school teachers should receive better pay. While many school districts have eliminated the double standard of compensation, enough still retain two scales which reserve the higher one for secondary school teachers. This is unfortunate and undemocratic.

CRUCIAL YEAR AT COLLEGE: It is an established fact that the freshman year at college is the most critical dropout and flunk-out period. The chances of graduating are greatly increased once this hurdle is conquered. Quite understandably, both high-school and college administrators are concerned about this problem. Recently, the N.E.A. offered five causes for the high rate of freshman mortality. While they are not original, it is most important to keep them in mind when orienting high-school students for college careers: (1) Lack of effective study habits and skills. (2) Lack of incentives to become a competent student. (3) Unrealistic concepts of college life. (4) Unpreparedness for hard work. (5) Inability to adjust to people.

DISABLED TEACHERS: Dr. Howard A. Rusk is a nationally recognized authority on vocational rehabilitation, and he discusses various aspects of this field in a column prepared for the *New York Times*. Recently, Dr. Rusk took to task the rule which bars the physically handicapped from school positions. He regards this regulation as archaic, discriminatory, and ethically immoral. At the present time New York City prohibits men and women from teaching in the city schools if they are too short, have hearing impairment of more than 10 per cent, have arm disabilities, have less than twenty-thirty vision in one eye, or use wheel chairs or crutches.

Dr. Rusk cites examples of teachers who have been successful even though they are completely blind. He contends that the paraplegic can be most effective in the classroom in spite of the severe handicap. Yet, thousands are rejected with relatively minor disabilities.

Schools lag far behind industry in hiring the disabled. Industry has found these individuals to be just as loyal, productive, and attentive as the normal worker. The schools can well follow this example.

JOSEPH GREEN

Congress—Student Style

By ADADE WHEELER

THE EDUCATION OF YOUTH for responsible citizenship—this goal appears in some form on every list of objectives in the social studies field. In our efforts to accomplish this aim, we pour over students a wealth of information about our nation's past and present which is designed to fill them with respect for our founding fathers and the desire to follow in their footsteps. We strive with books, movies, tapes, filmstrips, and lectures to give them an appreciation of their stake in the future of their country. Perhaps it is no wonder that by the time they can practice citizenship by voting, many of them have become almost immune to information that would help them do it intelligently. They need less preaching and more practice. We classroom "dictators" must stop telling them and offer them opportunities to experiment with the tools of government—and not just in the

planning of homeroom parties. By the time they begin the study of the Constitution in junior high, they are ready to tackle state and national problems. A model congress will make both the problems and the Constitution come alive in their hands. As one student put it in evaluating our model congress last year, "Now I really know what government means; we should do this sort of stuff much more often."

The most effective way to conduct such a project is to pool groups and to team teachers so that you have at least 100 for your legislative body. With block-of-time scheduling which included language arts and social studies, we were able to set up two congresses of 100 each with three teachers co-operating. This made senates of 33 members and houses that numbered 64 each. Areas such as auditoriums or cafeterias are needed for meetings of the houses and for joint sessions, but committee meetings can be held in the classrooms, and that, of course, is where most of the work is done.

November with its elections is the best time to stir up enthusiasm for such a project. As students discuss the party platforms and the candidates, they can be encouraged to dig into any of the issues which interest them for further information, with the idea that they can use this as the basis for legislation in January. Documents may also be accumulated so that the sessions may be as realistic as possible. We found the following helpful: "Our American Government, What Is It? How Does It Function?" House Document No. 386; "How Our Laws Are Made," U.S. Senate Document No. 152 and House Document No. 210; and a copy of the standing rules of the Senate. We also referred to pamphlets, such as "Know Your Congress" by Capital Publishers, Inc.,

EDITOR'S NOTE

To project or not to project, that is the question. Please forgive us for paraphrasing a line which has been paraphrased to death. However, it does accentuate an important point. How much learning experience takes place when class time and out-of-class time are devoted to role playing, constructing models, and indulging in similar activities? A hard core of educators would promptly announce that nothing takes place except the waste of time. On the other hand, another group of educators would say that with proper planning, co-operation, and direction a great deal may be learned. It is to this latter group that we assign the author, who is a teacher of language and social studies at Wheaton Junior High School, Wheaton, Illinois.

copies of the *Congressional Record*, and samples of House and Senate bills and resolutions. Back issues of newspapers edited for junior-high level as well as national magazines furnished good summaries of major issues. Our library played a most important part as our legislative reference service, for this is a project on which the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* and all almanacs are kept busy.

Typewriters and tape recorders provided the mechanical touch. Tapes were of TV documentaries, debates and reports by senators, and these were used to bring current facts to the whole group or to individual committees. All students who could type were kept busy making master sheets for a ditto machine so that each legislator could have a copy of all bills under consideration.

As we came down to the starting line, each group drew up its own list of objectives. While the groups had varied ideas and varied ways of expressing them, the different lists contained many similar items. Improvement in communication skills, including a better understanding of how public opinion works; more knowledge about the men who represent us, how they work and what their main problems are; and naturally, practice in working together to develop their ideas—these objectives appeared on every list. One group felt the project might enable them to understand better the influences behind a legislator's vote on an issue. The first chapter of *Profiles in Courage* by President Kennedy and selected paragraphs from *Advise and Consent* by Allen Drury helped them form these objectives.

The three teachers teamed for this project took the same liberties with our legislative system in adapting our small groups for action. We also used the same general assignments and forms. To be as realistic as possible in party balance, each student drew an "R" or a "D" to decide his party affiliation. In this way we kept the same

ratio as Congress. It also seemed to make the students more conscious of the party support behind various bills, and even helped them think twice before sponsoring a friend's legislation.

Their first assignment was to draw up a bill or resolution on any national problem which interested them, keeping the platform of their party in mind. They wrote letters for information which they felt they needed, but here we had to help them pool their efforts so that there would not be duplicate requests. All the information received was a welcome addition to our legislative reference service.

The list of subjects of these first bills gave us an idea of which committees we would need, since here we had to depart from reality and set up only a few. Each member served on just one committee, and by taking a few liberties in assigning legislation, we managed to get by with only six committees in each house.

As soon as our legislators had time to get used to their party labels, they held caucuses, at which they selected majority and minority leaders and whips. These leaders appointed a committee on committees for each party, to handle what was probably the most difficult of all assignments—placing members on committees. Each representative indicated his first and second choice, but the ratio of three Democrats to two Republicans had to be maintained and leadership had to be spread over all of them. As they put it, "You can't put all the 'goof-offs' on one committee!" They toyed with the idea of using ages as a seniority guide, but gave it up as impractical. Each chairman was elected by his committee, and here they found it necessary to ignore party labels and elect the best man.

At our next congress, we plan to have a swearing-in ceremony in each house and to administer the oath of office taken by all new members to the whole group. Making a major event out of this will emphasize

both the seriousness of the project and its main purpose.

By the time committee assignments were made and the officers of each house elected (the teachers appointed the vice-presidents to get the senate started), the second drafts of the bills were ready. Each piece of legislation was introduced, and then assigned to an appropriate committee. Here again we departed from realism and furnished each committee with forms to be used in making reports of their action on each proposal. They needed a definite place to record their reasons pro and con and their final recommendation.

We had started with the idea of spending four weeks on this project, but since we had other items to cover too, our timing proved unrealistic and we had to set our clock back by postponing adjournment. Debate proved time consuming, with plenty of amendments and the inevitable filibuster. We began to wonder if we'd ever get any bill as far as the White House (the principal's office). However, when the first bill became an act and was sent on to the other house with appropriate ceremonies, things began to move faster. Conferences became necessary and everyone wanted to be a conferee. The senate was several days behind in its legislative calendar. A resolution that had come up the first day for a change in its cloture rule had most realistically given way to other items and gone back to committee.

Great variety marked the measures introduced. Amendments to the Constitution

were plentiful; several to change the Electoral College; others to give Washington, D.C., representation and home rule; one to change the 22d amendment and, of course, one to cancel the 16th. Then there were bills on foreign aid, on conservation, on a national traffic code, on new members in the President's cabinet, and one requiring that every diplomat speak the language of the country to which he is assigned. A bill to limit the number of issues of commemorative stamps ran into trouble with the philatelists.

At the end of four weeks, each congress managed to get two bills to the President, and he managed to find good reasons for vetoing one for each of them. This gave them a chance to try to override his veto. After listening to the veto message, however, neither could get the $\frac{2}{3}$ vote.

There were many ways, of course, in which our congress differed from the real thing. Almost every member was present at every meeting—and participating. These were probably the only congressmen to get grades on oral expression. The sergeants-at-arms took action if members conferred on what was not obviously legislative business. However, I'm sure no congressmen ever felt more strongly about their opinions on their favorite measures and were more disappointed when they did not pass. And when the Congress of the United States begins to take action on similar measures, there is a sound basis for letters to representatives from future voters who will be as well informed as many present voters.



In-Service Training. Whatever the reasons, school systems themselves are providing an ever-increasing proportion of the in-service education of teachers. While they often call on college personnel for assistance, they want and get such assistance on their own terms. The growth of local in-service education is testified to by the rapidly increasing number of local supervisors and consultants; by the mushrooming of local workshops, institutes, and conferences; and by the recognition of participation in such programs for the purpose of salary increments.—WILLIAM H. CARTWRIGHT in the *Educational Forum*.

The MAT Intern

By DIANE A. WILBUR

"INTERN? MAT? What sort of teacher is that?"

Essentially, the Master of Arts in Teaching degree is designed for the prospective secondary-school teacher who has graduated from a liberal arts college with a strong major and minor in the humanities or sciences and few or no courses in education. The B.A. alone will not allow this graduate to teach in most public school systems, and so he or she enrolls in the MAT program.¹ The program provides from one year plus a summer school to two full years of combined study and teaching. Typically, the program consists of twelve to sixteen hours of education courses; intern teaching, which usually counts as eight credit hours; and approximately fifteen hours in the student's major subject at the graduate level. Generally a summer school at the beginning of the course provides nine hours of education courses, particularly for those who enter the program with none; often these courses will provide some experience

to duplicate the classroom experience through co-operation with the local schools. This summer session prepares the student for the intern teaching.

Whatever the length of the MAT program, at some time the prospective teacher is going to be an intern. Usually the interns divide into two groups, with one half of them teaching in the fall semester while the other half pursue a full-time graduate course in their subject fields; in the spring the groups are reversed with the interns becoming graduate students and the students becoming interns. During the entire year the intern-graduate is considered a full-time student at the university or college; usually he takes one course at night—probably in education; a second-semester intern may choose to continue one of his graduate courses if offered at night, in addition to an education course.

The intern team fills in one full-year teaching assignment for a school and receives as a team the lowest yearly salary paid by a school board. During the semester that each is being paid to teach, he is also paying tuition to the university to learn, unless he has a scholarship (in which case a foundation or grant is paying the tuition). The intern is expected to assume full responsibilities of the classroom teacher, to conduct homeroom, to keep roll, to help on committees, and to attend professional staff meetings. In some schools the intern will have a master teacher who occasionally observes him, but usually the observation is done by the intern director of the partic-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Let us explain that MAT refers to Masters of Art in Teaching. However, it is more than just a degree. It concerns an entire battalion of college graduates with a liberal arts background who have undergone crash programs in educational training to meet prescribed state certification. Internship at a school is an integral part of the procedure. Here the MAT is exposed to the final testing ground, and life is not always easy. The author has experienced the joys and sorrows of entering the teaching profession through the operation of this program and is successfully holding forth as an English teacher at Manhasset High School, Manhasset, New York.

¹ Some form of the MAT program is now available at Brown, Central Michigan University, University of Chicago, Claremont, Converse College, Cornell University, Duke, Harvard, Johns Hopkins, Kansas State, Michigan State, Middlebury, University of North Carolina, Northwestern, Notre Dame, Oberlin, University of Pittsburgh, Stanford, Vanderbilt, and Yale.

ular field from the university and by supervisors or heads of departments who supervise all first-year teachers in the school or system. The intern may be observed three times a month at first, but later the observations will be only once every six weeks.²

Most of the men and women who enter the MAT program do so with the hope of bringing quality education to the public schools. They are hopeful that their recently acquired knowledge and their enthusiasm for learning can be transferred to the classroom. All too often, due to poor intern assignments, this does not prove to be the case. If principals and superintendents and supervisors are intent upon raising the educational standards, then they must study the role the intern might best play in their schools and attempt to make the intern's job stimulating enough so that he will want to continue teaching.

The intern, it must be evident by now, is usually very well prepared in his subject matter; he usually has far more than the required hours in his subject field for state certification. He has had some courses in education but little or no practical experience. He has generally been removed from the world of teen-agers for four or five years and, wanting to avoid all of his own mistakes, he has only limited patience with their folly. Because he is close to the teen-ager in looks and age, the intern realizes immediately that he must make the subject matter interesting from the first day or he will lose the class and chaos will result.

Knowing this, the principal or supervisor can best serve the school or schools by placing the intern in situations where discipline problems are least likely to occur. The intern has been involved in the intricacies of his subject matter and is often, at first, unable to realize the more fundamental needs of his students. It may take him a

while to adjust to the needs of the students. He is least equipped to teach teen-agers who read far below grade level or who have no idea of number relationships. Nor is the intern equipped to walk into a "problem" school, which officials may choose to ignore as a problem, and discipline rather than teach. These types of assignments only frustrate the intern and his students, and even if he sticks it out, at the end of the assignment, he vows firmly that he will never teach again. When this is the situation, illusions are shattered all around. The teachers-college-dominated school officials are certain that the MAT program is a failure; the intern is disillusioned with the program and with teaching.

The officials of the MAT program in the universities do not like this unpleasant situation, but all too often they are forced to bow to it, over the threat that next year the local school board or school officials will not be interested in taking any interns from the program. The assumption is that a few unhappy interns are balanced by those who are happy in better assignments.

Is it worth it? Can we afford to let well-qualified teachers leave the field simply because they have had an unhappy experience in intern teaching?

Since the intern team is regarded as a teacher, why not make certain that the teaching conditions are as favorable as possible; why not recognize that the greatest area of difficulty is going to be discipline and that the greatest area of personal satisfaction for the intern is going to be the knowledge that he has presented the material in a meaningful way? The intern is subject oriented; he has much to learn about the art of education and the various ways of teaching, but he doesn't learn them by being plunged into difficult discipline situations. Only in a reasonably favorable internship will he learn through associating with professional teachers who recognize his weaknesses and accept his strengths, and through gradually accumulating his

² The MAT program and the role of the intern will vary from school to school; specific information about any one program may be obtained from the MAT director at that school.

own triumphs and failures in the classroom.

In cases where the internship has been a success, the intern has almost always been dealing with average to average-bright children in grades 9-12 rather than slow learners or with seventh and eighth graders. In these happy situations the intern has been able to see some progress and to feel that he has made a positive contribution to better education for today's youth. He has felt that the purpose of the MAT, to provide well-trained, subject-oriented teachers, has been accomplished.

The MAT graduate will also be frustrated and discouraged by slow learners and severe discipline problems if he faces them in his first few years of teaching.

A study of the 106 teaching graduates of the first eight years of the Yale MAT, 1951-1958, has shown that discipline and control of the classroom seem to be the chief failing of the MAT teacher, whereas the teacher's ability to create interest in the subject matter was rated superior as opposed to average, 3 to 1. Compared with teachers of similar experience, MATs were rated by their principals superior rather than average 2 to 1 and superior rather than inferior 10 to 1. The study showed that in 1958 discipline problems were found less often among the MAT graduates with more teaching experience; there were no discipline problems reported for the graduates of 1951.³ As the program becomes

³ William P. Holden, "Master of Arts in Teaching at Yale, 1951-1958," *Journal of Teacher Education*, X (December, 1959), 393-400.

more established and the universities are able to revise and better their curriculums, it is possible that these figures would improve, but it is certain that discipline will remain the weak point.

As the number of MATs increase, educators, school administrations, principals, and teachers must be aware of what the degree means and realize the contribution the MAT can make to the school and to teaching.

If discipline is recognized as the *bête noir* of the MAT graduate, administrators can relieve this problem by eliminating the possibility of undue discipline problems. By encouraging through careful intern placement rather than discouraging through poor placement, better utilization of talent can be achieved.

The MAT does not claim to be the answer to all secondary school problems, and with its small number of graduates, it cannot hope to be this. It does claim to be actively interested in bringing subject-oriented men and women into the field of high-school teaching. Careful intern and teacher placement will aid this claim.

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Middlemen in Education. Schools need teachers who are highly qualified in their subjects, skilled in methodology, understanding of their pupils and the nature of individual differences, and mindful of the interrelatedness of mind, emotion, and body. Schools also need persons with varying kinds and degrees of psychological training—psychometrists, psychologists, psychiatrists. But do we need an ever enlarging group of middlemen who are expert neither in teaching nor in rendering psychological services? Do we need to reconsider the role that guidance services can perform in enhancing teaching and learning in the schools? Would such reassessment reveal a need for new and different directions than those that have been emerging during the past quarter of a century?—*Journal of Secondary Education*.

Educational Implications of Regional Speech Differences

By
WILLIAM BANKS

NOT LONG AGO a teacher in Connecticut objected to the pattern of pronunciation of a student teacher because, as he put it, "She has New Jersey speech." It would seem from this that the speech of New Jersey is anathema in Connecticut or, at least, that it is unacceptable when uttered in the classroom.

It is hardly surprising that there are those in New Jersey who take the opposite view. They are inclined to feel with equal regional pride that their own pronunciations are superior to those commonly heard in Connecticut. Similarly, school administrators in the East are wont to look with disapproval on teachers whose speech emanates from the West; whereas in the West there is a contrary tendency to regard an Eastern speaker with amusement, if not contempt. This spirit of regional patriotism is even more marked in the attitude of

many Northerners toward Southern speech and in the attitude of many Southerners toward the speech patterns of the North. The issue reaches its climax, however, in the differences which distinguish speakers in the United States from those in Britain. Here the cleavage is sharp enough to cause wincing on both sides; and has, in fact, driven some speakers to seek refuge in the thesis that the American language is a separate entity distinct from English.

Apparently, then, some educated persons, including some who educate, have fallen into an attitude of chauvinism with regard to the speech of their local geographic areas. Such local partisans, however, cannot all be right. These various regional pronunciations cannot each be superior to all the others. The question is: Who is right and why?

If this question had arisen in regard to the French language, there would be little difficulty in answering it. The Parisian elite exert a strong influence upon the French Academy, which in turn holds sway over matters of usage and pronunciation in that tongue. As a consequence, the most admired forms of utterance in French are those of the Parisian elite. Similarly, in German the most impressive pattern of pronunciation reflects the customs of cultivated speakers in Berlin. Florentine Italian and Castilian Spanish have acquired a like primacy in those languages. In fact, in most European tongues the cultivated speaker looks to his country's seat of learning for guidance in matters of usage and pronunciation.

In the English-speaking world, however, no such clear-cut primacy exists. Geo-

EDITOR'S NOTE

We recognize the fact that speech differences do exist in various regions of the United States. Many dialectologists, like Professor Henry Higgins of Pygmalion fame, are able to spot the geographic origin of an individual by the manner in which he speaks the English language. Yet most of us regard these variations with amusement and, at times, with chagrin. However, when speech differences are used as a weapon of discrimination in hiring teachers, the matter assumes a more serious tone. The author has a few well-chosen words to say about this entire problem. He is an assistant professor of English at the University of Bridgeport in Connecticut.

graphically fragmented, it recognizes no single seat of learning and no central elite, as does the French. Nor has there been an English academy of letters in modern times. Perhaps because of the public school tradition, the Englishman is apt to admire the speech of Eton and Harrow graduates, whether or not they reside in London. Thus, in England it seems to matter less where you live than where you were educated. Yet even this notion fails as a criterion of genuine superiority. Although the speech of the aristocracy of southern England is undoubtedly a superb variety of English, lexicographers do not offer it as an absolute standard even in England. Daniel Jones in *An English Pronouncing Dictionary* is careful to disclaim any attempt "to decide how people ought to pronounce." An even more pointed statement appears in *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* to the effect that "at present, uniformity of pronunciation is not to be found throughout the English-speaking world."

This is not to say that no standards whatsoever exist in English. On the contrary, a distinct difference exists everywhere between those untutored speakers who hold no special regard for the instrument of language and those educated speakers who do. In every geographic area we find coarse extremes of dialect; but these are the utterances of rude and untrained speakers. The differences between the speech of one area and that of another are much less pronounced among well-educated speakers than among the less educated.

Thus, the rule followed by most educated persons in the English-speaking world is the principle expressed by John S. Kenyon in *Webster's New International Dictionary*:

"... A pronunciation is correct when it is in actual use by a sufficient number of cultivated speakers."

The term "sufficient" requires a degree of experience and judgment; but in practice it is not a serious problem. Most authorities divide the United States into three major regions with respect to differences in pronunciation. In broad terms these are the South, the East, and the West. It is best to recognize, however, that *Southern* speech does not extend westward beyond a line drawn roughly from St. Louis through the center of Texas and that *Eastern* speech is limited for the most part to the region east of the Connecticut River. Speech patterns in the remainder of the country constitute a group sometimes known as *Western*, but more often referred to as *General American*. Although minor differences exist among cultivated speakers within each of these major areas, there are enough similarities to justify the concept expressed by these regional groupings. If a speaker conforms to the general patterns of pronunciation of any of these groups, he may be said to have achieved correctness within the meaning of Dr. Kenyon's definition.

It would seem, then, that none of the regional partisans may reasonably claim superiority of pronunciation in English. Nor may they with clear consciences disparage one another with respect to cultivated regional speech. With the growth of the various media of communication in our country, it is possible that regional variations in American English will gradually die out. Meanwhile it would seem as unreasonable to reject a teacher for her regional speech pattern as it would be to do so because one prefers blue eyes to brown.

Two Practical Questions Involving GRADING PAPERS

By M. F. PHILLIPS

IN GRADING MY STUDENTS' PAPERS, I am faced repeatedly with two questions, which, at first glimpse, seem innocuous. They are, however, quite complex and ever present; and if they are not raised by my students, I myself raise them in my conscience.

The first question concerns the matter of "grading on a curve." My students are always inclined to advocate this system of grading. I usually do not grade on a curve; yet I am not sure that the philosophy behind it may not be to a degree correct. It depends, I think, upon the philosophy of grading. Is the grading of regular tests a means of checking each student's mastery of a unit as an *absolutum*, or is it a means of finding a percentage for comparison's sake with an arbitrary median? I am in principle in favor of the former method—comparison with the *absolutum* (100).

Suppose, for example, that a class con-

tains only outstanding students. The poorest test paper should then be designated as the passing minimum of 69. Yet, in a straight, absolute grading system, that paper would perhaps receive a grade of B or about 85. It is obvious then that, according to the curve system of grading, the general score level would be unfairly low.

Now suppose that the opposite is true—that the class contains extremely poor students only. You would then compare all the papers to the lowest score and thus would make the general level much higher than in a percentage grading system. As a result the scores as well as the final marks would be unrealistic and could lead to complacency and delusion.

In my classes I use generally the absolute grading system. If a student has all the items correct, his grade is 100. Before I grade my papers, I find the value of each item by dividing the number of items into 100. To find a student's grade I multiply the number of incorrect and omitted items by the value of each item and subtract from 100.

In some special cases, however, I still use a *mutatis mutandis* curve system. In my physics classes, for example, examinations are alternately standardized tests and tests of my own making. In the latter tests there are usually five to eight problems, requiring the entire period of fifty minutes. These I grade on a kind of curve system; the standardized tests, on a straight percentage basis.

I do not feel that I could in all fairness apply the straight percentage grading system to my own tests. Suppose, for example, there are five problems in a test. Accord-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Of all the tasks with which teachers are encumbered, none is more time consuming than grading papers. Sitting down in the confines of our own home with a stack of papers before us often prompts such escape thoughts as "I wonder what the normal people are doing tonight?" Yet we realize that grading papers is a necessary and important chore. Not only are we concerned with the mechanical aspect of checking papers, but the problem of assigning equitable grades becomes a real issue. The author, who is on the staff of the Woodward School for Boys at Washington, D.C., has been wrestling with this issue, too.

ingly, if a student misses two problems, his grade is $100 - (2 \times 20)$ or 60; i.e., failing. I do not believe it would be fair to flunk a student who solved three out of five difficult problems. Students solving successfully only two, or only one, or none would *eo ipso* have grades of 40 or less, which is equally unfair. For this reason I usually establish in such cases an arbitrary scale, such as, two problems correct, 70 per cent; three correct, 75 per cent; four correct, 85 per cent; five correct, 100 per cent.* Appropriate allowance is made for partially solved problems.

In effect, this is also grading on a curve, the curve being represented by the following sets of co-ordinates: $2/70$, $3/75$, $4/85$, $5/100$, with the interpolated sets for partially solved problems. The co-ordinates are established by the teacher's free assessment, although they may be found by a mathematical formula.

This system is reminiscent of the older letter grading system—A, B, C, and so on—without percentile calculations and numerical scores, thus giving much more leeway and relying much more on the teacher's discretionary authority. It is still widely used in Europe, where also oral recitations and examinations are regularly given, with all their advantages and disadvantages.

The second question which puzzles me is the matter of counting the answers. Should we count the omitted items as well as the incorrect items? When I score an examination on the straight percentage basis, I take into consideration the omitted items as well as the incorrect items. My students, however, try to persuade me to count only the answered items and disregard the omitted.

There may be something to the thesis. In some generally accepted standardized tests the unanswered items do not directly influence the score.

* This is in fact a variation of the system of "weighted questions" wherein the instructor determines and tags the value of individual questions (5, 10, 30 and 50 on).

A counter argument might be convincing in a *reductio ad absurdum*. I usually say something like this:

"Suppose that there were fifty items in a test, each worth 2 per cent. One student answers all 50, 40 correct and 10 incorrect. His grade is 100 minus 20, or 80 per cent. Another student answers none. His grade is 100 minus 0, or 100 per cent."

Such an extreme example causes a lot of hilarity but is hardly convincing, as are all absurd examples. Then I cite the students another example: Suppose that a student answers 40 of the 50 items, 5 of which are incorrect. His grade is 100 minus 10 or 90 per cent. Immediately they see the inconsistency in the scoring—that the first student who had 40 items correct received 80 per cent while the student who had only 35 items correct received 90 per cent—and they usually accept my thesis.

The same inconsistency prevails in the method of scoring some very useful, intelligent, and nationally known examinations. Their scoring formula in some subjects is $R - W/4$. (R represents the total number of correct items; W represents the total number of incorrect items.) Their method of scoring is still based on the theory that only the answered questions should count, although the unanswered questions may still have *indirect* influence. The score obviously is directly influenced by the ratio of R and W and not by the ratio of $(R + W)$ over the total number of items in the test. It seems to me that the formula should be amended to embrace the total number of items in the test as well as the total number of items answered.

Careful study of the results, arrived at by use of the formula $R - W/4$ in Table 1 (page 239) will show some obvious inconsistencies. Students B and F have achieved the same scores. There is no doubt, however, that student B has a much better mastery of the subject since he answered correctly 70 items while student F answered only 65 items. Furthermore, student B

TABLE 1

Student	No. of Items Answered (out of 100 in the test)	W	R	Score $R - \frac{W}{4}$
A	100	20	80	75
B	90	20	70	65
C	90	10	80	77*
D	80	10	70	67*
E	70	5	65	64**
F	65	0	65	65

* 0.5 omitted (exact values: 77.5, 67.5).

** Exact value, 63.75.

achieved his 70 by undertaking a much more difficult task: he answered a total of 90 questions, while student F took it easy and picked out only 65 items of which he was sure. Besides he had more time for each question, since he had to concentrate on only 65 items, compared to B's 90.

Even more paradoxical and unfair is the score of student B as compared to that of D. Student D tried only 80 items, getting 10 incorrect and 70 correct, and achieved a score of 67—two points higher than B, who also answered 70 items correctly. Accordingly, students D and F, because of their speculative philosophy, get rewarded

much more than student B, who actually did a more conscientious and in fact a much better job.

The same inconsistency exists when we compare the scores of students A and C. For the same number of correct answers C receives a score two points higher than A; yet student A tried all 100 items, while C tried only 90. The inconsistency between students E and F is similarly drastic. E's score is lower than F's, although both have the same number of correct answers. Student E, in fact, is penalized for trying to answer 70 items instead of only 65.

Fabula docet: If my interpretation and application of the formula $R - W/4$ and similar formulas are also correct, they should be amended to involve the ratio:

$$\frac{R + W}{\text{Total number of items in test}}$$

The amended formula should apply both where the $R - W/4$ is the final score or where it is just an intermediate step. In other words, I believe an instructor is justified in counting all skipped items as incorrect answers.

The Teacher as a Recruiter

Every teacher is a model for the profession. A wide variety of teaching-related experiences and service activities are available to qualified student. Each and every faculty member, encouraged by district and school administrators, makes a conscious effort to identify and encourage potential teachers among his qualified students. Programs of observation of and limited participation in teaching roles are planned and implemented cooperatively, with concern for appropriate scope and sequence, by elementary and secondary teachers. Care is given consistently to establishing the concept of "exploration of teaching roles" rather than of "teaching" in these student experiences. Students have easy access to accurate, up-to-date information about teaching,

including salary and supply-demand information.

How can we possibly expect teaching to increase in status (and thus attractiveness) when we fail even to disseminate basic facts upon which such a change obviously depends? Future teachers (and citizen-parents) may, even today, complete high school without ever having had planned learning experiences concerning the aims, accomplishments, problems, and great importance of education in our society. The natural inference to be drawn from such omission is that education, the real hope of the world, is not sufficiently important to merit more than hesitant attention in the school curriculum. That such a condition should exist is almost unbelievable.—BLAIR E. HURD in the *CTA Journal*.

The Murrell Dobbins Technical High School Explains the Operation of Its Successful

ANNUAL ALUMNI AWARD

By BENJAMIN J. NOVAK

RECOGNITION OF ALUMNI in one way or another is not particularly new, and is practiced in a number of schools. There is value, however, in reviewing the bases on which alumni awards are justified, and in considering the administrative mechanics, especially as they relate to a vocational school.

Although Philadelphia's Murrell Dobbins Technical High School is now twenty-three years old, the annual alumni award was initiated only in December, 1957, after

the school had been operating for nineteen years. Some years must elapse before a school can acquire numbers and perspective in relation to its graduates.

Why Have Alumni Awards?

Several major and other subsidiary justifications can be advanced in support of recognizing a school's graduates. All of them can in more or less direct fashion contribute to the one always primary aim of a school—to provide the best possible education for the present and future students. All else is subordinate and is indeed of questionable significance.

The purposes and anticipated benefits may be summarized as follows:

(1) Recognition to persons who not long before were receiving the same sort of education sets a pattern of inspiration and self-identification that cannot quite be matched in any other way. It is one thing to be exhorted by adults from a more remote generation, and quite another to see the achievement of younger people of a closer generation who have had many of the same experiences as the students still in school.

(2) Alumni recognition tends to focus the attention of more alumni upon what the school is accomplishing. More and stronger contacts are fostered among the graduates and the on-going school. These can result in specific developments, like membership on advisory committees, aid in placing newer graduates, plus help interpreting the school to the public.

(3) Such awards tend to sustain the awareness of faculty and students upon the

EDITOR'S NOTE

For the most part, the alumni of a high school are a nebulous group indeed. After leaving the hallowed halls of Spodunk High, the graduates disperse in all directions and sever their ties rather abruptly. True, there may be follow-ups and class reunions during the early period of separation, but then complete oblivion sets in. Therefore, the idea of having an annual alumni award intrigues us. While the operation of such a program may be less complicated when a vocational high school is involved, the plan can be adapted to meet the specific needs of the comprehensive high school. We envision an "alumni day assembly" at which time the honors will be conferred. The only disquieting thought we have concerns the recipient. There he stands, many years later and many pounds heavier, staring at the acres of young faces before him. Oh, well!

The author of this article is vice-principal of Frankford High School, Philadelphia.

whereabouts and progress of more of the school's alumni.

(4) Awards to graduates compose another avenue for publicity. The public needs these days more than ever to know that vocational and technical education is important and worth while. Indeed, all education needs public awareness. More specifically, since each winner represents a particular trade, increased interests are generated for a time in that occupation. In a large school offering preparation in thirty or more different vocations, it is not easy for each to be held in its proper perspective.

Administering the Award

At the Dobbins Technical High School, the alumni award is being administered by a graduate award committee of eight faculty members, representing a cross section of the teaching and administrative staff. The idea had been discussed and the procedures agreed upon by the faculty and student government. A set of guiding principles was adopted: "to . . . honor those graduates of our school who have rendered commendable service to industry and to the community."

The criteria for nomination are: (1) The individual must be a graduate of the school. (2) He must have distinguished himself in his field of endeavor, in an industry the same as, or related to, the trade studied at the school. (3) He must have rendered commendable service to industry and to the community. (4) The candidate should have had a worthy school record.

Nominations may be made by any member of the faculty who, in turn, encourages suggestions from any other source. A blank provides for data including name, address, trade pursued at the school, present position, name of recommending teacher, and other supporting information.

The graduate award committee ranks the candidates and, after deliberation, agrees in June upon the winner for that year. A

special assembly is held in December. Besides student body and faculty, special guests are officials of the school system, the family, friends, and business associates of the award winner, as well as advisory committee members of the trade represented by the winner. The award consists of a bronze plaque bearing the inscription "Murrell Dobbins Graduate Award," the date, and the name of the alumnus. The plaque is a product of the school's workmanship and co-operation. The commercial art department developed the design. The patternmaking shop made the pattern and base. The foundry pours the casting, and the machine and cabinet shops do the finishing.

Safeguards Needed

Awards carry inherent danger of negative outcomes. In this, alumni awards are no exceptions. Several difficulties can be cited.

The graduate selected for recognition cannot really be thought of as being the *most* outstanding. For one thing, complete data on all alumni are practically impossible to obtain; therefore the choice never is made from all the possibilities. Also, there can probably be no objective agreement on what achievements are the most outstanding among a wide variety of possibilities. Moreover, most notable accomplishments embrace many favorable circumstances that cannot be credited to the person reaping their benefits. Another equally worthy individual may be laboring with devotion and skill in an environment that is less likely to arouse notice. There are people, too, who exert more energy and skill in displaying their achievements to others. The committee needs discernment and assiduous application, therefore, to penetrate the superficial and to explore beyond the obvious.

Any specific award can be regarded as recognition of *representative* outstanding graduates, rather than of necessarily the

one most outstanding individual. Sometimes divisive ill-feelings are engendered among supporters of passed-over candidates. (At the Dobbins Technical High School, candidates may be held over from year to year.)

The tendency to emphasize unduly ma-

terial achievement and social stature must be minimized. The major and largely uncelebrated products of our educational programs are the faithful worker, the good housewife, and the responsible citizen. It is upon their shoulders that the leaders whom we recognize are borne.

Curbing Sick-Leave Expenditures

By ARTHUR R. CASCIOLI

John W. Dodd Junior High School, Freeport, New York

One of the greatest expenditures incurred by school districts throughout the school year is that of teacher absence due to illness or accident. Unlike the office employee whose work may frequently be allowed to accumulate until his return, the classroom teacher must have his position filled immediately. School districts might possibly consider some methods for stemming the great loss of money as well as learning opportunity for the student. It is less than realistic to believe that the typical substitute teacher serves any significant educational purpose in the classroom. His function for the most part is little more than stopgap.

Among the suggestions made to school districts to combat this serious fiscal problem is the film-series project. School districts might consider the purchase of films of recognized educational worth. Such films would take into consideration the viewing taste of students of all intellectual levels. Films could be shown throughout the school day, perhaps in the school auditorium, under the supervision of the audio-visual department.

A second suggestion to withstand the expense of teacher absenteeism would require great curriculum flexibility. This plan would enable students of absent teachers to visit other identical subject-matter classrooms. Let us assume that Miss Jones, an English I teacher, is absent. Student A, a fifth-period student of Miss Jones, chooses to visit the classroom of an-

other English I teacher during this period. The student is not only offered the opportunity of participating in a daily English lesson, which may or may not be original to him, but is also given the experience of comparing teacher methods, classroom organization, interaction, and so on, while taking the daily English lesson. It is entirely believable that such an alternative would yield a more productive academic day for the student than the present substitute-teacher plan. Of course, a procedure such as this would require strict administrative and teacher supervision.

Where the administration of such highly experimental plans for stemming the flow of vitally needed expenditures is not feasible, school principals might require all staff members to file in his office at the start of the school year five lesson plans the substance of which might require minimum student understanding from a direction standpoint. The object of this plan would be to afford the student subjective participation in the lesson while permitting the substitute teacher to assume the less academically dangerous position of supervisor.

These are but a few suggestions school districts might consider for decreasing sick-leave expenditures. Through no fault of his own, the substitute teacher serves little real educational value in the classroom while his employment siphons badly needed school funds.

A Letter from Outer Space

By STANLEY I. ALPRIN

EDITOR'S NOTE

The crystal ball is at work again, bringing us an imaginary excursion into the unknown. The medium has intercepted a letter which will be written some thousand years hence, and its contents have us somewhat puzzled. We wonder. Is Uncle George writing about us? The author who presented this message to us is a school psychologist with the New Jersey State Department of Education.

FEBRUARY 12, 2941

MR. JOHN ROLLIN
234 ASTRO PLACE
FRIENDSHIP CITY, REGION #14
STAR #14
THE MILKY WAY

MY DEAR JOHN:

I was very pleased to hear of your latest interest, the study of the history of education. Since you are living on one of the more recently settled stars, your library facilities may not be so extensive as they are here on Star #2. Of course, I shall be happy to send any materials you request.

I should like to make certain suggestions, however, regarding the wise use of your time. Little of educational significance took place before 1993, a year after the mass exodus of our ancestors from the planet Earth. Prior to that date the pages of history are little more than an accounting of the inability of men to get along with one another. While many great minds attempted to change the basic value systems of the people from the dawn of history until the moment of the Great Explosion, their efforts were in the main ineffective. When exploration parties were finally able

to return to Earth in 2096, they brought back to Star #1 great quantities of records from certain underground vaults. These records gave clear proof of a rampant neurosis and psychosis right up until the time of the exodus. (For definitions of "neurosis" and "psychosis" see Allen's *History of Abnormal Behavior*, published in 2907. The terms have not been used since about 2050.)

There was a brief period, starting about 1930 and ending about 1964, when a small number of educators in a country known as the United States of America attempted to change the course of history. (The Earth was divided up into a number of autonomous areas known as countries. There usually was much rivalry between them.) This effort to change history was known as the "progressive education movement." It was quickly branded as radical, and had to be disguised with such terms as "general education," "child study," "modern," and "instrumentalism." Had it not been for an emerging conflict between capitalism and communism (two types of political and economic systems on earth), the progressive movement might have successfully developed the kinds of values which are so commonplace to you and me, and the contamination of the Earth's atmosphere might never have occurred.

In 1945 the United States exploded the first atomic "bomb" (a device for killing large numbers of people). Shortly thereafter the Soviet Union (another country) duplicated this experiment, and for the next twelve years or so these two countries prepared thousands of these bombs and kept them in a state of readiness. Much of the wealth and energy of both countries was diverted to developing scientific devices for the protection of one country from the other.

I recognize that this type of situation is difficult for you to comprehend, but it is a necessary background for a thorough understanding of the educational systems and philosophies during the last few years before the Great Explosion.

It seems that educational thinking began to be dominated by military, scientific, and political leaders. More and more emphasis was placed on the education of the talented and on the study of science and mathematics. The schools quickly lost interest in providing broad programs for the less than gifted, and there was little prestige attached to teaching courses outside the areas of math and science.

During the progressive period, the United States had set a standard of sound and comprehensive education that was far beyond the thinking of the other countries on the Earth. As this philosophical framework deteriorated in the United States, fear started to grip the other nations, and they started to eliminate all progressive influences. By 1972 the world's high schools were training nothing but technicians and mathematicians, and liberal arts had disappeared from the universities. The elementary schools had already discontinued teaching music, art, and dramatics, and the entire language arts program in our schools was oriented toward the development of scientific terminology.

You can well imagine how utterly forlorn the vast majority of children throughout the world became. They were literally rejected by the societies they were supposed to love and support. In 1984, as you well know, a space ship reached Star #1 and

discovered that the climate and atmosphere were nearly identical to the Earth's. It may surprise you to learn, however, that the many thousands of young men and women who migrated to Star #1 came from the ranks of the dispossessed and rejected youth mentioned above. The five nations which had advanced space programs raced wildly to colonize and develop the choice areas. For a few years it seemed as if all of the evil thoughts and ridiculous values from Earth would be transplanted to this new star, for history had a way of repeating itself. In 1992, however, the greatest tragedy ever to occur in the universe took place. No one knows exactly what happened on that fateful day—the few messages recorded underground told only of being attacked and giving orders to retaliate. Less than five hundred thousands had left the planet by then, but fortunately all spaceships were quickly mobilized on Star #1 and they were able to evacuate another three hundred thousand people from Africa and South America during the next ten days before the atmosphere became contaminated.

In my next letter I should like to discuss the great changes that took place in the values and attitudes of the settlers and the factors that brought about these changes.

All of my love,

UNCLE GEORGE

14 MELODY LANE
UNIVERSITY CITY
AREA #3347
STAR #2
THE MILKY WAY



Criticisms based upon misunderstanding have been leveled at the junior high school, but they can be refuted. For example, some maintain that juvenile delinquency has increased in the junior high school. This is not true. The program has offered socializing experiences that promote healthy expression and sublimation of adolescent effervescence.—*Intercom*.

Parental Interpretation of and Reaction to Dual Report Cards

By JOSEPH W. HALLIWELL

FEW ADMINISTRATORS OR TEACHERS would deny that reporting to parents is one of the major perennial problems confronting American educators. A survey of the relevant literature indicates that a great deal of discussion and attention in the form of meetings, committees, reports, articles, and texts, has been devoted to this major problem. Despite the voluminous amount of literature relating to most phases of reporting, very few studies have been concerned with actual research on reporting or on parent interpretation of and reaction to report cards.

Recently, many educators and parents have commented on the need for more meaningful report cards, report cards which are more explicit and leave less to the imagination or individual interpretation of the parent (3). In answer to this need, several prominent authorities have

advocated a dual reporting program involving the assessment of pupil progress on both an objective and a subjective basis (2). In a dual marking or reporting system, evaluation consists of two phases. In the first, the teacher compares the academic performance of the pupil with some objective class or grade-level norm. In the second, the academic performance of the pupil is evaluated in relation to his ability. It is obvious that a program such as this is a compromise between the traditional objective reporting philosophy and the modern pupil-centered or relativistic reporting philosophy, and that it combines the essential characteristics of both forms. The champions of such a program of judging pupil progress feel that it is more meaningful to parents and fairer to pupils. A cursory sketch of some research pertinent to this area should enable the parent to interpret and react to dual report cards with less confusion.

Two basic assumptions are implicit in a dual reporting system. The first assumption is that teachers are capable of marking students in an objective fashion. The second assumption underlying this program is that teachers are competent in evaluating the quality of a pupil's performance in the light of his ability.

From the pioneering studies of Starch and Elliot, to contemporary studies of marking, it has been obvious that the objectivity of teacher grades is definitely open to challenge (7). Repeated studies have yielded results which prove conclusively that despite equivalent or superior performance on standardized achievement tests by boys, girls are assigned better grades by

EDITOR'S NOTE

We pick up the strain of a familiar refrain and sing about report cards once again. Forgive our lyrical indulgence, but, after all, this is a topic which has made the "hit parade" of persistent educational problems for many years. To follow up an article concerned with a cure for report card blues (The Clearing House for October, 1961) we offer for your consideration the thoughts of the principal of the Daniel Webster School, New Rochelle, New York. As a practical schoolman, he is concerned with an equitable method of reporting a student's progress and its resultant impression upon a most interested individual—the parent.

teachers (4). A recent study of the attitudes of high-school teachers has indicated that there is a significant relationship between scores on a teacher-attitude inventory and the percentage of failing grades assigned by the teachers (6). The practical implication of this finding is that when there are two classes characterized by students of similar ability and motivation, taught by two teachers significantly different in their attitudes toward pupils, the percentage of failures in the two classes will differ markedly irrespective of the similarity in ability and effort on the part of the students.

One facet of marking and reporting that has received little or no attention, yet may very well be a significant factor to be considered in the interpretation of grades, is the importance of the class or school as a frame of reference. A limited amount of interesting research concerning this problem has been conducted in the area of grading essay questions. The findings in these studies indicate that if a teacher grades a test paper containing a good answer to an essay question after having graded a paper containing an outstanding answer to the essay question, the pupil with the good answer will not receive as high a grade as he would have if his paper followed a poorer paper (7). Certainly it is to be expected that a similar type of influence is operative in reporting. If the academic progress of an average pupil is evaluated after the teacher has evaluated the progress of twenty-four bright pupils, how will his report compare with that of an average child who has been evaluated after his teacher has evaluated the progress of twenty-four slow children? If teachers, consciously or unconsciously, use the class or school as frame of reference, the report of a pupil will be to some extent a function of his classmates or school-mates' abilities.

There have been very few studies concerning the validity of the basic assumption underlying subjective or relativistic reporting. Fundamentally, the goal of the

teacher in this technique of evaluation is to appraise effort. The extent to which a teacher feels that the child is or is not working up to his capacity as measured by an intelligence test or teacher estimate is usually the basis for the pupil's subjective grade. Some writers have attacked the validity of this technique with vehemence (8). Some writers feel that before effort can be judged in a satisfactory manner, more accurate evaluation techniques must be available (1). Some writers seem to feel that this procedure is relatively simple and valid (3), while other writers feel that this is the only satisfactory way to express that which is to be reported (2).

A recent study, one of only two actual research studies reported in this area, sought to determine whether teachers employed in a school system which had adopted an individualized reporting program actually adhered to such a philosophy of reporting (5). The investigation attempted to ascertain whether there was a relationship between I.Q. and grades. If there was a significant relationship between grades and I.Q., it would indicate that teachers tended to mark in a traditional manner irrespective of the stated marking philosophy since there is no reason to assume a significant relationship between effort and I.Q. The findings yielded a significant relationship between I.Q. and grades.

While there have been no research studies conducted on dual reporting programs, this review of the studies on the individualized and traditional reporting program seems to offer evidence that a dual reporting program may merely measure the same variables twice. If the significant relationship found between intelligence and grades in the individualized reporting study is also found in the individualized portion of the dual report, there will be an obvious halo effect. Bright students will do well on the objective and subjective section, while slow students will do poorly on both sections.

Certainly, in the light of this review of the research findings, there would seem to be virtually no substantiation for the optimism which the proponents of the dual reporting programs manifest concerning its effectiveness in reducing the amount of individual interpretation on the part of the parent. These research findings should, however, give some assistance in helping parents to interpret dual report cards.

In the past, parents interpreted high marks on a report card as indicative of good work on the part of their child, whereas low marks were considered indicative of poor work. A knowledge of the research findings on reporting indicate that such a simple explanation of a report card grade is unwarranted. The research studies have yielded results which demonstrate that, irrespective of the form of reporting, a mark on a report card may be a function of the child's intelligence, sex, teacher, and class as well as the effort he expends.

It is not unusual for the recipient of a good report to receive some type of reward, whereas the recipient of a poor report receives some form of punishment. If parents are to be reasonable and just in reacting to a report card, they must consider the factors involved in a mark. If an intelligent pupil receives good grades in achievement and effort, the parents must not overlook hereditary factors. The parents, and not the pupil, should accept any rewards. If the pupil happens to be a girl, and receives good grades, the father should accept any rewards since he determined the sex of the pupil. If the pupil happens to receive a good report in a class of relatively slow pupils in a lower socio-economic area, the

parents should accept any rewards since the pupil rarely selects the neighborhood in which he wants to reside. If the pupil happens to do well in a class with an easy teacher, the teacher should accept any rewards proffered. Occasionally, the efforts of a pupil should result in a good report. In such cases, some reward should go to the pupil.

Carrying this reaction to its logical conclusion, if a father gives a reward of five dollars for a good report, he should give two dollars to himself, one dollar to his wife, one dollar to the teacher and one dollar to the pupil. Conversely, if a father gives five wallops as a punishment for a poor report, the same ratio should be applied.

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Since learning to read is a lifetime process that cannot be completely mastered by the end of the elementary school, subject-matter instructors in high schools, and colleges have a responsibility for helping students continue their growth in reading skill. An instructor does not need to be an expert in the teaching of reading in order to help students read better at the same time that he is covering course content.—STANLEY E. DAVIS in the *North Central Association Quarterly*.

BOOK REVIEWS

Reading and the Psychology of Perception by HUNTER DIACK. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1960. 178 pages, \$6.00.

Hunter Diack, an English psychologist, impressed me very favorably in the first reading of his book; this feeling did not change with further study. He is primarily interested in what happens when a child looks at the printed words in what we might call a learning situation.

Dr. Diack first shows quite adequately that the Gestalt theory, which carries the implication that children see "words as wholes," is no longer acceptable as an explanation of what happens when a child learns to read. In a careful check of all the important Gestalt literature of the past sixty years, Diack comes to the conclusion that there is no clear-cut picture or definition of what a Gestalt really is. The common catch phrase for a Gestalt, "The whole is more than the sum of its parts," appears again and again, but in attempting to apply this phrase to actual physical and natural situations one is compelled to admit that the literature does more to confuse than to clarify.

Diack takes the position that perception is tremendously complex and so far, at least, we have had no adequate explanation of it. A "visual image" on the retina is only a part of what happens. A "sensory image" too falls short of what happens because inner speech is involved when a person looks at the printed word. All of the person's experience is brought to bear in this act of perception. For want of a better term he uses the term "analogue" to describe perception. This seems more nearly adequate, according to Diack, because it also includes language—and any evaluation of perception in reading without including a reference to the language involved is quite unrealistic.

In learning about perception we must study its development in young children and particularly notice how it is influenced by language. When a child is learning to speak, those parts of the retinal image to which he pays attention are selected for him by words *spoken to him* more than by anything else. In his own experimentation with preschool children, Diack brings this part out.

In the last part of the book the author explains his experiments with children in percep-

tion and shows quite conclusively that they learn to discriminate between fairly similar words and between letters by noting small details like endings, shapes, and configurations. He proves that the theory of perceiving by wholes is on shaky ground at best. In this last part he gives evidence to show that in successful teaching of reading both in England and in the United States the teachers must apply the analogue theory of perception if the child is actually going to learn to read.

This is probably the most illuminating book yet written upon the subject of perception in reading. It can scarcely be given justice in this short review.

ALLEN G. ERICKSON

American History by AVERY O. CRAVEN and WALTER JOHNSON. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1961. 743 pages, \$5.68.

At first glance the text seems oversimplified though it may have been designed for the "average" pupil. The intent of the text, however, becomes evident as one reads through the chapters. The reading level is quite simple. The historical data are generalized. Conclusions are generalized rather than drawn from specific historical detail. The text is more narrative than most. Yet, very little of importance is omitted. Social and economic developments are not ignored.

Most impressive is the organization of the text. Dates are not lacking, but, until one reaches more recent history, they are for the most part restricted to the bold-type section headings for easy reference. The approach is chronological in fairly broad areas, but within each area the text is subdivided into units. Thus, there may be reference to a topic several times in different contexts. This gives the impression that the text is based upon a topical concept of learning rather than upon drill. Perhaps the key impression of the text is breadth rather than depth.

The text is organized as virtually a self-instruction manual. The vocabulary is kept simple, and the sentence structure is uncomplicated. Each subheading is enclosed in an eye-catching color and is accompanied by two or three questions which are explored in the subsections. Preceding the narrative of each chapter are lists of key persons, events, and terms. Succeeding each chapter are the usual questions

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on the text, special projects, and bibliographies, including biography and fiction.

Especially eye catching are the numerous illustrations in color. Preceding the first chapter is a pictorial history of the progress of United States history almost in the style of *Life* magazine. Each unit has its time chart, and at the back of the books are overlay maps showing the growth of the United States geographically. The maps are beautifully done on highly glossed paper and are extraordinarily legible.

Interspersed are pages on "The Human Side of History" from original sources. On the battle of Lexington there are both the official American version and the report of the British officer in command. In another instance, letters of Abigail Adams are reproduced. Harry Truman describes his decision to use the atom bomb. Mr. Dooley is quoted on the Philippines. This reviewer feels these selections are a most valuable addition to the text.

Perhaps the severest criticism of the text is that it makes no great demands upon the pupil. It might be too concerned with the narrative. Still it does point to greater depth if the pupil or teacher would seize upon these. It should be an easy text for teachers to use.

ARTHUR GOLDBERG

Science for Your Needs (2d ed.), 433 pages, \$4.12; *Science for Progress* (2d ed.), 610 pages, \$5.24; *Science in Today's World* (2d ed.), 416 pages, \$3.96; by MAURICE U. AMES, ARTHUR O. BAKER, and JOSEPH F. LEAHY. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961.

The "Science for Progress" series by Ames, Baker, and Leahy consists of three volumes. *Science for Your Needs*, one of the volumes, covers such topics as the universe, securing food, community health, energy and work, communicating by wires, transportation, clothing, living things, and the surface of the earth. A second volume, *Science for Progress*, presents problems on the scientific approach to living, securing food, good health, recreation, communication, transportation, and assuring continued existence. *Science in Today's World* includes problems in chemistry, energy, water, air, weather, living things, the universe, and space travel.

The topics in this series are general and basic to the student's needs, but the development of each brings in definite scientific facts. The excellent manner in which the general topics are tied to basic scientific material is amazing. The large and easy-to-read type printed on double-column pages is in simple language with more

difficult words spelled phonetically. Many full-color photographs are included with each topic, and every page has one or more photographs or diagrams. The experiments are discussed and are also well illustrated in two or three colored diagrams. The "science shy" student could follow the experiments from the diagrams. Basic apparatus is used in the experiments, which prove the points under discussion. The texts are timely, and include such topics as the Sabin vaccine, atomic and solar energy, and the satellites up to 1960. The summaries at the end of each chapter are headed: "Ideas to Remember"—a listing of the important ideas of the chapter; "Can You Do These?"—additional experiments to do at home or in class; "How Would You Answer These?"—questions with multiple-choice answers; and "Further Reading"—books which should appeal to the advanced student.

Ames, Baker, and Leahy in the "Science for Progress" series have kept in mind heterogeneous or homogeneous groupings by supplying material to appeal to the slow, the average, and the above-average students. Any book of the series could be used as an introductory science text, and the others fitted in to meet the plans for seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade science courses. Through this series, the student would gain an excellent introduction to science, a basic understanding of his environment, and an inspiration for further study in chemistry, biology, or physics.

ERON FORE COSBY

Reflective Thinking: the Method of Education by H. GORDON HULLFISH and PHILIP G. SMITH. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co., Inc., 1961. 273 pages, \$2.95.

In this extremely thought-provoking book, beginning with an overview of present-day classroom critics, Dr. Hullfish and Dr. Smith question our democratic concepts of education. "Have we been too ambitious? Are we justified in believing that men may be taught to think?" The authors suggest the answers to these questions, first, through an analysis of thinking, and, second, through a discussion of values and judgments. "To think is to develop a plan, to believe. And to believe is to be willing to act," they say. To act, then, is to experience. At this point the conflict arises in the classroom between turning the child loose in laboratory, library, and shop to express his own opinion or becoming overly anxious to organize the enormous body of information and to teach by exposition and recitation.

"Valuing pervades all believing." The authors convincingly state their case that in the school the younger generation can be helped to realize that objective control of judgment, "though difficult to achieve, is not beyond the realm of possibility."

The tools used in thinking and learning must be handled carefully for their purposes to be understood. Deductive and inductive inference, meaning arising with experience, imagination, and language are all symbols to be organized within the lives of individual students to advance their reflective capabilities.

In conclusion, the classroom is called a "reflective continuity" in which the teacher recognizes each problem as "a personal affair" for the student to claim and shout for all to hear, "This is mine! Let me get at it."

MAMIE H. ROSS

Who's Who Among Our Reviewers

Mrs. Cosby is chairman of the science department at Binford Junior High School, Richmond, Virginia.

Dr. Erickson is director of the reading clinic at Moorhead State College, Minnesota.

Dr. Goldberg is the vice-principal of the Edwin O. Smith School, Storrs, Connecticut.

Mrs. Ross teaches 12th-grade English at Montgomery Blair High School, Silver Spring, Maryland.

Pamphlets Received

PAMPHLETS RECEIVED from the BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK (Publication Sales Office, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn 1, N.Y.):

Aviation Mechanics for Vocational High Schools (Curriculum Bulletin No. 5, 1957-1958 series), 1960. 133 pages.

The Education of the Deaf (Part III, Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools 1956-1957), 1960. 35 pages.

Guide for Health Counselors (Curriculum Bulletin No. 3, 1952-1953 series), 1960 ed. 104 pages, \$1.00.

Health Guidance in Elementary Schools (Curriculum Bulletin No. 7, 1959-1960 series), 1960. 38 pages, 50 cents.

Operation New York: Using the Natural Environment of the City as a Curriculum Resource, 1960. 117 pages, \$1.00.

Reading in the Secondary Schools (Curriculum Research Report), 1961. 61 pages, 50 cents.

Science Grades K-6, 4. Sound and Light in Communication (Curriculum Bulletin No. 2d, 1958-1959 series), 1960. 57 pages, 50 cents.

Shorthand for High Schools, Course of Study and Syllabus (Curriculum Bulletin No. 8, 1959-1960 series), 1960. 93 pages, 75 cents.

Teaching Map and Globe Skills (Curriculum Bulletin No. 6, 1959-1960 series), 1960. 41 pages, 50 cents.

Toward Greater Opportunity (a progress report from the Superintendent of Schools to the Board of Education dealing with implementation of recommendations of the Commission on Integration), 1960. 196 pages.

Using Laboratory Techniques in Teaching Foreign Languages in New York City Schools (Curriculum Research Report), 1961. 60 pages, 50 cents.

Paperbounds Received

From DELL PUBLISHING CO., INC., 750 Third Ave., New York 17, N.Y.:

The Financier by THEODORE DREISER, 1961. 542 pages, 95 cents.

The Story of My Life by HELEN KELLER, 1961. 416 pages, 50 cents.

Ten Adventures of Father Brown by G. K. CHESTERTON, 1961. 224 pages, 50 cents.

Thirteen Great Stories edited by DANIEL TALBOT, 1961. 256 pages, 50 cents.

The Travels of Marco Polo translated by WILLIAM MARSDEN, 1961. 416 pages, 50 cents.

Wuthering Heights by EMILY BRONTË, 1961. 351 pages, 50 cents.

From the NEW AMERICAN LIBRARY OF WORLD LITERATURE, INC., 501 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y.:

The Conquest of Peru by WILLIAM H. PRESCOTT, edited and abridged by VICTOR W. VON HAGEN, 1961. 416 pages, 50 cents.

The Death of a Nobody by JULES ROMAINS, 1961. 124 pages, 50 cents.

The Duel and Selected Stories by ALEXANDER KUPRIN, 1961. 256 pages, 50 cents.

The Farm by LOUIS BROMFIELD, 1961. 350 pages, 75 cents.

Fathers and Sons by IVAN TURGENEV, 1961. 207 pages, 50 cents.

The Forest and the Sea by MARSTON BATES, 1961. 216 pages, 50 cents.

The Golden Treasury of the Best Songs and Lyrical Poems by F. T. PALGRAVE, 1961. 564 pages, 95 cents.

A Guide to Earth History by RICHARD CARRINGTON, 1961. 284 pages, 75 cents.

The House of the Seven Gables by NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE, 1961. 286 pages, 50 cents.

Idylls of the King and A Selection of Poems by ALFRED TENNYSON, 1961. 319 pages, 50 cents.

The Loom of History by HERBERT J. MULLER, 1961. 495 pages, 95 cents.

Nature and Man's Fate by GARRETT HARDIN, 1961. 320 pages, 75 cents.

On the Nature of Man by JOHN LANGDON-DAVIES, 1961. 224 pages, 50 cents.

Resurrection by LEO TOLSTOY, 1961. 430 pages, 75 cents.

The Rise and Fall of Nazi Germany by T. L. JARMAN, 1961. 368 pages, 75 cents.

Sense and Sensibility by JANE AUSTEN, 1961. 314 pages, 50 cents.

A Treasury of Modern Asian Stories edited by DANIEL L. MILTON and WILLIAM CLIFFORD, 1961. 237 pages, 50 cents.

Books Received

A Basic Book Collection for Junior High Schools (3d ed.) edited by MARGARET V. SPENGLER. Chicago: American Library Association, 1960. 136 pages, \$2.00.

Effective Study (rev. ed.) by FRANCIS P. ROBINSON. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1961. 278 pages, \$4.50.

English the American Way for German-Speaking Adults (2d ed.) by BEULAH HANDLER. New York: Barnes and Noble, Inc., 1961.

For Young Adults Only (the Doctor Discusses Your Personal Problems) by FRANK HOWARD RICHARDSON. New York 18: Tupper and Love, Publishers, 1961. 133 pages, \$2.95.

The History of Our World (2d ed.) by ARTHUR E. R. BOAK, PRESTON W. SLOSSON, HOWARD R. ANDERSON, and HALL BARTLETT. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1961. 850 pages, \$5.80.

How to Make Athletic Equipment by JOEL W. CARTER. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1960. 390 pages, \$6.75.

One-Act Plays for Teen-Agers by EARL J. DIAS. Boston: Plays, Inc., 1961. 339 pages, \$5.00.

Pioneers of the Press, the First Newspapers in America by GERARD PREVIN MEYER. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1961. 96 pages, \$2.95.

Progressive Filing (7th ed.) by GILBERT KAHN, THEODORE YERIAN, and JEFFREY R. STEWART, JR. New York 36: Gregg Publishing Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1960. 182 pages, \$3.16.

Teaching Bookkeeping and Accounting by VERNON A. MUSSELMAN and J. MARSHALL HANNA. New York 36: Gregg Publishing Division, McGraw-Hill, 1960. 376 pages, \$6.00.

THE HUMANITIES TODAY

TV & NEWER MEDIA

Whither Television?

It seems rather ironic that television, while riding off in all directions simultaneously, has brought about a clearly defined image in two other electronic media—radio and motion pictures. Not too long ago, the function of radio in the home was significant enough to warrant the encasement of the receiving apparatus in a handsome piece of furniture. Programmers justifiably reckoned that the whole family would sit around the living room listening to the "Lux Radio Theater" of a winter's evening. Joe Louis became a superhuman gladiator in the vivid word pictures of Clem McCarthy. The family could—if educationists will pardon the phrase—share domestic problem solving with Molly Goldberg, Fibber McGee, Henry Aldrich, Jane Ace, Vic and Sade, and other light-hearted "neighbors."

But for most of us, sight is a hungrier sense than hearing. When television came along, we marveled at the junk yard of broken-down talent because it strutted and fretted before our very eyes. Television receivers were stuck into posh-looking consoles, and radio became a wanderer. Its family audience disappeared, and it began addressing itself to individuals on the move. Thus radio today is basically a portable but bottomless container of companionable sound, thanks to TV's usurpation of radio's former position.

Whereas radio was reduced in size and brilliance (but certainly not scope) by the elixir of television, motion pictures emerged from the dunking with bigger, more forthright movies and smaller audiences. The mythical person with the mentality of a twelve year old who had presumably been filling movie houses in the pretelevision days gradually switched to TV. Motion pictures responded by beefing up their target age eight or nine years, and in so doing captured the more mature fancies of reading folks who had often encountered sex problems in books but had yet to see the shadow of a real, almost-live prostitute flit across the silver screen. In addition, screens were enlarged and foreign locales were employed, at great expense, to prove the superiority of moving pictures to TV as a medium for drama. (I suspect that at least some of the

success of subtitled foreign films is traceable to the fact that people became surfeited with the American English being constantly blatted and brayed at them by radio and TV.) The adult role that television has helped force upon movies seems fitting for film.

But TV itself is still a *je ne sais quoi*. To use a sports cliché, it tries to be a great little crowd pleaser and therefore satisfies only a few thoroughly. It is radio of the thirties with pictures and films of any era with commercials. It is portable and stationary. It pretends to spectacle on its 23-inch, sometime-colored screen. It parades so many inconsequential programs that good ones are often neglected.

Let us hope that FCC Commissioner Minow can help the television industry wipe off the vacant stare and put a real face on their boy.
H.B.M.

POEMS FOR STUDY

SO WE'LL GO NO MORE A-ROVING

By LORD BYRON

So we'll go no more a-roving
So late into the night,
Though the heart be still as loving,
And the moon be still as bright.

For the sword outwears its sheath,
And the soul wears out the breast,
And the heart must pause to breathe,
And Love itself have rest.

Though the night was made for loving,
And the day returns too soon,
Yet we'll go no more a-roving
By the light of the moon.

If you ask a class of high-school students or college freshmen such questions as the following about this lyric of Byron's, you can get interesting results:

(a) Does this poem communicate to you any genuine emotion at all? If it does, do you perceive it as superficial or intense?

(b) This love lyric is quite strictly formal in pattern (note the regular stanza form and rhyme scheme). Does this detract from its impact as a lover's farewell?

(c) Does stanza 2 muddle the tone of the poem? Could stanzas 1 and 3 stand alone successfully?

I would urge the students to answer these, or similar questions, honestly, not as they think I expect them to be answered. Then one can proceed to a fruitful discussion of the poem.

I think you will find that to most of your students this lyric is a dud. It does not speak to them—something gets in the way, maybe very little things, like the somewhat archaic expression "a-roving." (This verbal is, in fact, semantically fascinating, but I won't pursue that now.)

How can we get the poem to speak to them? John Ciardi says, as have many before him, the passionate lover of poetry does not need to be "taught" its appreciation, he "lives into it," "inhales" it as the Milanese inhale opera. No teacher, no matter how skillful, can single-handedly create this capacity for poetry in students. It is obviously a result of long conditioning and, if we are to believe James Stephens, never quite possible except for those born with special appreciative aptitudes.

We can but do our best. I happen to think that this poem, which falls so flat for so many youthful Americans, is practically perfect of its kind. Maybe the reasons I offer for so thinking are not the real reasons; maybe (this is so often the case) the real reasons are associational but have lost their identity for me. But let me go ahead and answer my own questions and hope that as a result Byron's song will be better thought of.

Persons with any literary education at all have heard that Byron was a poseur, and that he tended to parade his bleeding heart. In this chaste and simple song I catch no sense of emotional exhibitionism. There is a real sadness in this farewell. I am not suggesting that it is earth shaking or the end of everything, but Byron has got hold of something universal here—the regret that comes at the end of a youthful, romantic, idyllic experience. He has expressed it with admirable restraint. The emotion here, I think, is neither out of the depths, nor superficial, but a perfectly expressed sadness over the end of something that was beautiful.

The strict pattern of the verse form is entirely appropriate, because the element of regret is blended with a meditative one. The poem is, in fact, surprisingly *thoughtful*. In a way it is a discussion about why we'll go no more a-roving. This is why stanza 2 is requisite.

In the second stanza, four reasons are given for the end of the affair. The first is stated

metaphorically, the others almost literally. Taking them almost in reverse order, the poet says love itself must have respites, cannot be unrelentingly intense. The third line supports this by saying that the heart cannot continuously maintain a high pitch of feeling; it must pause simply to breathe. The second line, "And the soul wears out the breast," is richly suggestive. Among other things, I take it to mean that an ultraromantic ether is an impossible atmosphere for very long. The really tough line is the first. Does it mean that what is sharp and poignant—a sword, for example—will destroy in time its covering, or what protects it from being a fatal weapon. May one suggest that Byron is being very analytical indeed here, and proposing that passion carries the seeds of its own destruction?

I maintain that this is a tremendous poem because like all great poems it does so much. It describes by implication an overwhelming experience. It asks why that experience cannot be prolonged, and gives good reasons, psychologically sound ones, why it cannot. It is a lesson about passion without seeming to be so. It does all this with an apparently artless simplicity. It is both touching and wise. Incidentally, Byron employs all the timeworn associations between night, the moon, and love, and gets away with it.

Maybe George Gordon, Lord Byron, wore his heart conspicuously, and made it bleed readily for public consumption. But here he was at his best. Some kind of discipline was at work which makes this a timeless item in the roster of lyric farewells.

WILLIAM ROSS CLARK
University of Connecticut

IN PRINT

TV and Kids

Television in the Lives of Our Children by WILBUR SCHRAMM, JACK LYLE, and EDWIN B. PARKER. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1961. 324 pages, \$6.00.

After three years of research, Dr. Schramm and his colleagues have reached the conclusion that television doesn't seem to be hurting children. However, they caution, it doesn't help children much either, being for the most part just another means of idling away time (or filling the need for fantasy gratification, if you will).

Aside from the unsurprising point that bright children tend to watch more challenging programs, there is little in this volume that actu-

ally supports TV. Indeed, most of the evidence simply refutes the wild claims of some television critics who maintain that if junior stays in the cage with this monster too long, it will chew him up, eyeballs, psyche, and all.

The research evidence shows that time spent watching TV is ordinarily snatched from equally inane and fanciful pastimes. Reality-centered activities like doing homework and reading serious books have few inroads made on them by television.

The study also reveals that the child who has been exposed to television gets off to a faster start in building a vocabulary and assimilating general knowledge, but the advantage is lost after a few years. By the time he reaches the ten to thirteen age group, the novelty has worn off, other interests beckon, and he is ready to cut down his viewing time considerably.

The text concludes by examining the physical, emotional, cognitive, and behavioral effects of TV on children and then poses some thoughtful questions for broadcasters, parents, schools, government officials, and researchers.

Perhaps the greatest lack in this well-documented, scholarly book (100 pages of charts and notes on research techniques are included) is the absence of information on the impact of commercials. How lasting is the product identification connected with a cartoon character? How much influence do Captain Kangaroo's shipmates have on Mommy in the supermarket? Inasmuch as American television is dominated by advertising interests and is certainly the most blatantly commercial of all the mass media, some examination of the effect of its sales message on children would, I think, be very appropriate. Such research could be done possibly in the kind of long-range analysis of the effects of television which the authors consider necessary.

H.B.M.

New Voice of the Bible

The New English Bible: New Testament. New York: Oxford University Press/Cambridge University Press, 1961. 447 pages, \$4.95.

The misleading title of this current translation has stimulated mixed reactions to the book. In truth, *The New English Bible* is not new. It merely represents the attempt to put the New Testament in the natural idiom of contemporary English. It is "new" only insofar as it modernizes the 350-year-old language that gives the King James version of the Bible its archaic distinction and that has made the Scriptures so sacred and so unread.

The new translation does not try to simplify or to change. John's Gospel loses none of its drama; the imagery of Luke still dazzles. In places little modern touches might jar the reader's sensibility. The King James translation of Luke 14:12 reads: "When thou makest a dinner or a supper, call not thy friends, nor thy brethren. . . ." *The New English Bible* renders the same passage: "When you give a lunch or dinner party, do not invite your friends, your brothers. . . ." Aside from the omission of the parallelism that gives resonance and power to the King James Bible, the substituting of "lunch" for the first "dinner" in the new translation takes away the strong domestic associations, and a new sense of suburban and business protocol replaces them.

The mysterious and powerful Apocalypse of the Revelation of St. John the Divine becomes much more readable and comprehensible in modern translation. The force of St. John's vision still remains, and the primitive symbolism comes through with the same vigor and grandeur as in the King James Bible. Although *The New English Bible* has established a position on the best-seller list, there is doubt that the old trend has changed. The Bible has always been the best selling and least read of all books.

FREDERICK S. KILEY
Trenton State College

The Marriage Game

The Light in the Piazza by ELIZABETH SPENCER. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1961. 110 pages, \$3.00.

Margaret Johnson and her beautiful retarded daughter, Clara, find destiny in a vacation in Italy. While Margaret Johnson's husband remains at home attending in the best American fashion to the business of making money, mother and daughter involve themselves in an intrigue that climaxes with Clara's marriage to young, handsome Fabrizio Naccarelli. Full of the guilt born of her suburban background, Margaret Johnson plays social chess with Fabrizio's father and discovers the ambiguity of right in the process.

Elizabeth Spencer presents her story simply and, at times, with chilling clarity. Although the daughter Clara does not emerge as a satisfying character, Margaret Johnson dominates the book with her breathing presence. The first few pages establish a tension that prevails to the end of the book.

F.S.K.

AUDIO-VISUAL NEWS

Educational Television

TYPES OF TELEVISION INSTALLATIONS

(Continued from November)

Entire Building—Commercial Channels. When TV coverage for an entire building is being considered, the only antenna recommended is the master type. This is really a separate antenna for each channel desired. All channels desired should be installed at the time the antenna is put up. Each channel would be provided with a separate split-band amplifier for the picture signal and the accompanying audio signal. For economy, it is possible to install only one amplifier for all the channels and switch from one channel to the other at the amplifier. This would mean that only one channel could be received at the same time throughout the building and teachers could not switch from one channel to another at will. Or an amplifier similar to that used in home-type receivers could be used, in which no channels are received perfectly but all are received in some degree of perfection.

This RF signal would be distributed to each classroom by coaxial cable, where an outlet jack would permit the plugging in of the TV receiver. The cable used would be 1/4-inch to 1/2-inch in diameter. It is frequently possible to run this cable in conduits, air shafts, or heating ducts. If not, it can be run along the outside of the walls in protective molding. There is no limit to the number of sets that could be operated at any time using the master antenna system and split-beam amplifier, since the signal strength is regulated by the amplifier for each channel. The reception on each channel should be better than that provided by any other reception method.

Use of commercial channels would be primarily for the reception of educational programs broadcast from commercial and educational stations. These courses would supplement and enrich our present curriculum. Foreign languages are available on an elementary level. In-service programs for teachers are another important service. News programs, plays, music, and films are other available features.

The advantages of providing facilities for an entire building are: (1) Each teacher selects lessons or programs as they fit his or her teach-

ing needs. (2) Viewing takes place in the classroom, with no disturbance to anyone. (3) The best possible signal strength is available to each classroom for each channel.

The disadvantages are: (1) Until receivers are provided for each room, receivers must be moved from room to room. (2) Total cost is greater than other installations.

Costs: Minimum Standards receiver (23-inch), \$150 each; special school standards receiver (24 inch), \$200-300 each; mobile stand, \$30 each; master antenna and split-band amplifier, \$200-\$300 each channel; distribution cable and outlets, \$30-50 per room.

Entire Building—Closed-Circuit and Commercial Channels. This is a continuation of the treatment in the last section. The addition of closed-circuit TV facilities is very easy and relatively inexpensive if done at the same time that provision is made for the commercial channels. For closed-circuit TV, a closed loop of coaxial cable is needed from the head end (building amplifier) back to the head end. This loop would include all the rooms on each floor in a closed circuit from the building amplifier and back again. It is now possible by installing the proper outlets to have the TV camera and the TV receivers plug into any outlet—each outlet being capable of caring for one TV camera and TV receiver or two TV receivers all on the same cable.

With RF producing cameras, it would be possible to have several programs on the cable at the same time, either closed circuit or commercial. Each receiver would be tuned to the channel desired, so that each teacher would pick up the program suited to his needs, no matter how many programs are being sent over the cable. With this type of installation, one cable will carry all channels desired. The only limitation is the length of the cables from camera to receiver. Over several thousand feet, it will be necessary to boost the signal. In that case it may be necessary to run a cable from the camera to the building amplifier (already installed for commercial channels) and then distribute throughout the building. A TV engineer should be consulted on this point before the cables are installed in a building.

If a studio or studios are provided, cables would be run from each camera to the building amplifier, enabling the sending out of several programs simultaneously over the one coaxial

cable to the classrooms. In addition to live broadcasts, these could include film projection camera chains, video tape recorders, and optical multiplexers (film, slides, opaque projection, from one camera). The only other probable source of programs would be those coming by closed-circuit cable or microwave from other schools in the system or from adjacent school systems.

The uses of this type of equipment are many. The above description includes some. I will summarize the types of programs that would be available. (1) All programs on commercial channels. (2) Live programs prepared by individual or group teaching within the school. (3) Video tape recorded programs from commercial sources and educational TV stations; live programs within the school or other schools; transparencies, slides and opaque pictures. (4) Films or filmstrips by closed-circuit TV. (5) Assembly programs and sports programs.

Advantages: (1) Complete equipment for every type of TV program, originating inside or outside the school. (2) Availability of every type of program to each room of the building. (3) Repetition of programs at will.

Disadvantages: (1) Large initial cost.

Costs: Minimum standards receiver (23-inch), \$150 each; special school standards receiver (24-inch), \$200-300 each; master antenna and split-band amplifiers, \$200-300 per channel; distribution cable and outlets, \$30-50 per outlet; input cable and outlet, \$20-25 per outlet; video frequency attachment (probably not needed), \$20-30 per receiver; Camera-Vidicon (industrial type), \$595-1795; monitor, \$150; zoom lens, \$435; standard, wide-angle, telephoto, and close up lens, \$250; tripod and dolly, \$200-500; coaxial cables, \$16 per 100 feet; sound system, \$250; lights, \$200-300.

Suggested Materials

From McGraw-Hill Textfilms, 330 W. 42d St., New York 36, N.Y.:

EXPLORING THE MOON: 16 mins., color, \$180. A realistic journey to the moon. Identifies various "seas," craters, mountain ranges, and other features. Includes a simulated landing. (Jr. H.S.)

'29 BOOM AND 30'S DEPRESSION: 14 mins., black and white, \$85. Recreates the events of the period, their causes and significance then and now for a generation of students who

weren't born when they happened. The cyclical nature of American business activity, in which expansion has been followed by depression, is explained. The obvious need to prevent another depression and what we can do about it are stressed. (Sr. H.S.)

THE RISE OF ORGANIZED LABOR: 18 mins., black and white, \$110. Explains the economic conditions which forced workers to join unions, shows how the unions built their organizations. Traces the growth of the Knights of Labor, the emergence of the American Federation of Labor, the establishment of the Congress of Industrial Organizations, and the merger of the A.F. of L. and the C.I.O. (Jr.-Sr. H. S.)

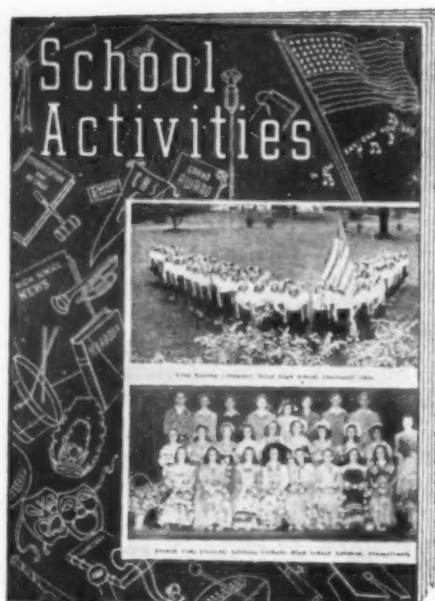
CHILDREN OF THE WAGON TRAIN: 18 mins., color (\$200); black and white (\$110). Describes the route of the Oregon Trail as it was in 1849, and explains some of the motivating forces behind the movement to the West, as seen through the eyes of Jim Daniels, a fourteen-year-old boy. Jim describes the hardships and adventures that were part of their daily lives as they pass over the famous landmarks of the Oregon Trail. (Jr. H.S.)

THE FRENCH FAMILY BRUNEL: 17 mins., black and white, \$97.50. A visit to a family in France, revealing an interesting different culture as well as human feelings that are universally common. The story is a warm, personal one and the members of the family are seen as individuals, not as picturesque or curiously different people. Also available in a French language version. (Jr. H.S.)

THE WAR OF 1812: 15 mins., color (\$175), black and white (\$90). Deals with the causes, events, and results of the War of 1812. The opening scenes deal with some of the events that led up to the war. The film then covers the highlights of the military and naval action in the main theaters of the war. It concludes with an evaluation of the importance of this war in American history. (Jr.-Sr. H.S.)

THE ERA OF WATER COMMERCE: 11 mins., color (\$140), black and white (\$70). Provides visual evidence of the importance of water transportation in the development of commerce in the United States and shows how the progress of water commerce was influenced by demands placed on it by the growing economy.

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